EFFECTIVE SPEECH

VOLUME VI

EFFECTIVE SPEECH

Including Mental Training
and the
Development of Personality

A COMPLETE COURSE

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VOLUME VI

LESSONS XI AND XII

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Effective Speech

LESSON XI

LESSON XI

Part A

HOW TO MAKE A SOUND ARGUMENT HOW TO REFUTE AN ARGUMENT

Habit, Suggestion and Deliberation as Sources of Action

People do various things for various reasons. Most people do a great many things merely from habit. Many people perform many acts simply because performing these acts has been suggested to them and at the time they see no reason why they should not perform these acts. Probably all people at times find themselves confronted by a choice between two or more ways of acting and calmly decide which way to act because there seem to be more good reasons for acting the way they finally decide to act than for acting in any of the other ways. It is perfectly natural to act on all of these three planes—the plane of *habit,* the plane of *suggestion,* and the plane of *deliberation.* However, it is at once apparent that the plane of delibera-

tion is the highest. Habit sometimes leads to very disastrous results, as may be readily seen when a person falls down a new and strange stairway because he has developed the habit of descending the stairway in his own home a certain way, or when a person has acquired the habit of relying on the judgment of a so-called friend and then is suddenly betrayed by him. Suggestion, likewise, may result disastrously, as can be seen in the instance of a swimmer who plunges boldly into the surf merely because some one has suggested the familiar thrill of the sport, and the swimmer himself has been ignorant of the fact that there is a heavy undertow at this particular beach, or has failed to remember that there may be an undertow at such beaches, or, again, in the instance of the salaried clerk who has bought an expensive automobile on the installment plan and has failed to remember that he already has payments to meet on his home and his new radio set, and that his income is not sufficient to meet all these payments. Deliberation, of course, may likewise fail to bring advantageous results, but the chances for failure to achieve a favorable result are much smaller, for, at least, the person involved has considered the decision from every angle and

has acted in the light of all information obtainable.

No Speaker Can Afford to Neglect Argument

Fewer people probably act from deliberation than from habit or suggestion, but, just because these people *do* act after deliberation, they are more successful and carry greater weight and influence in their respective communities or groups of associates. Consequently, any speaker that desires to influence the thought of his fellows, or get them to do what he wants them to do, cannot afford to neglect these few. The old saying, long current among promoters, "Catch the big fish first," recognizes this fact. Therefore any man who expects to lead the thought or action of a group, must offer "good and sufficient reasons" for recommending the course of action which he advocates. This is called arguing, and *the act of making a sound argument is simply the act of stating a "good and sufficient reason" for the proposed line of action.*

All this sounds very easy, but, as a matter of fact, it is very difficult, for the world and life are so complex that it is often difficult to decide what is a "good and sufficient reason" for doing or not doing a thing. However, it will be the province of this lesson to lay down

a general mode of procedure that will guard against many of the pitfalls that lie in wait for one who undertakes to prove that a certain line of conduct should be pursued.

An Argument Must Be Based on an Assertion

Before entering the field of actual argument however, let it be said that there must be a very clear idea as to what it is desired to prove. One cannot argue a single word or group of words, such as *strikes* or *branch banking.* One might *explain* the causes of strikes, or *describe* a strike, or *narrate* the history of strikes, but it is impossible to *argue* strikes. In order that there may be an argument, something must be asserted, such as *strikes do harm,* or *strikes are justifiable.*

Argument Often Confined to the Truth or Falsity of an Assertion

Now let it be said that oftentimes we do not argue about any line of *conduct,* but merely confine ourselves to arguing whether a certain thing is *true* or *false,* being content to let the truth or falsity of what we have been arguing influence action as it may. For instance, in the question just cited in regard to *strikes,* a speaker may confine his argument to the proposition that "strikes do

harm," and, having proved this, may allow it to influence the conduct of his hearers as it may. This fact leads to a consideration of what arguments a speaker should undertake, for it certainly is not wise for a speaker to undertake to prove something true or false, which he cannot *from the very nature of the case prove true or false.* Such a proposition would be: *Resolved, that heat is more essential to the production of steam than water,* for both are essential. Likewise such propositions as *Resolved, that angels may be sent from heaven to earth without passing through the intervening space,* and *Resolved, that the pen is mightier than the sword,* are beyond argument.

Some Assertions Not Capable of Proof

Professor Shaw,[1] of Knox College, says of these last two propositions: "The first of these propositions, though discussed with delight by medieval schoolmen, is obviously one on which evidence is unavailable; and the second, though very commonly discussed by later generations of schoolmen and schoolboys, is one for which a comparatively thorough survey of all evidence is impossible."

[1] Quoted by Shaw, *Art of Debate,* p. 10; Allyn and Bacon, Boston.

Any Argument Must Be Confined to a Single Assertion

Another very essential thing in determining whether or not a proposition is capable of proof is whether or not it embodies only one assertion. Such a question as *Resolved, that all high school students should be compelled to take a course in military drill, and should, after graduation, serve a period of weeks each year in a military training camp* would not be a good question to argue about, because it might be very possible to prove one part of it and not be possible to prove the other part. Consequently, no verdict as to the entire question could be arrived at.

"He Who Affirms Must Prove"

It almost goes without saying that, in order to have a real argument, the person who makes an assertion must prove it. If one politician says to another, "You were guilty of corrupt conduct while in office," the man against whom the charge is made has a perfect right to ask his opponent to prove the charge. It would be almost impossible for the politician charged with corruption to prove he was not guilty of corrupt conduct. This placing of the responsibility of proving

an assertion upon the one who makes it is called locating the "burden of proof," and the burden of proof must always rest with the affirmative in an argument, that is upon the one who makes the assertion.

The "Burden of Proof" Often Shifts from Side to Side as the Argument Progresses

However, if the one making an assertion in an argument makes out a case that "looks good on the surface," then the burden shifts to the other side. For example, if one politician charges another with corruption while in office, and produces a letter purporting to be from the alleged corrupt politician in which he offers to render a certain decision involving his governmental duties provided a certain sum of money is paid to him, the burden would be upon the alleged corrupt politician to prove that the letter is a forgery, or that it has been misconstrued, or, at least in some way, to excuse himself from the apparent guilt.

The Meaning of All Words in an Assertion Must Be Clear

One of the most common reasons why people who are arguing with one another fail to agree, or succeed only in getting into fur-

ther disputes, is that they argue questions that have words or terms in them that are *ambiguous,* that is, words or terms that may have two or more meanings. Such a question would be: *Resolved, that law is a better profession than medicine.*[2] In this question the word *better* may have several different meanings according to the standards set up by those arguing the question. To one person better might mean *more remunerative,* to another, *offering greater opportunities for leisure,* to still another, *offering greater opportunities to aid one's fellowmen.* Evidently no standard can be set up until those who argue the question can agree upon the meaning of the word "better." Consequently, any person who undertakes to argue a question should make clear the meaning of all the terms involved.

If you wish to engage in a successful argument, then you must consider at the very start the following things:

1. You must see to it that the assertion can be proved either *approximately true* or *approximately false.*

2. You must see to it that there is *only one assertion.*

[2] Quoted by Foster, *Argumentation and Debating,* p. 5; published by Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

3. You must see to it that the "burden of proof" rests with the affirmative.

4. You must see to it that all words or terms are carefully defined.

The next step in building a successful argument is that of finding what *must be proved* in order to prove your assertion. The best way to do this is to divide a sheet of paper by a line running down the middle from the top to the bottom and placing on one side all the reasons *for* the assertion, or proposition, and on the other side all the reasons *against* the assertion, or proposition. The following might represent this as done for the assertion:

Resolved, that Congress should be given the power to overrule the decisions of the Supreme Court in regard to the constitutionality of laws.

For	*Against*
Congress should be given this power, for	Congress should *not* be given this power, for
A. The Supreme Court has overstepped its power, for	A. The Supreme Court is an impartial body of trained judges placed out of the reach of scheming politicians, for
1. Statutes are sometimes declared unconstitutional not because they conflict with the Constitution, but because they are in conflict with preconceived poli-	1. Justices of Supreme Court do not have to depend on politics for their position
	2. They are not swayed

cies of the court, for
(*a*) The court often favors big business
(*b*) The court is influenced by personal prejudice

B. Under the present régime of the Supreme Court, social legislation is hindered, for
1. The doctrine of "freedom of contract" is not wisely used
2. Investigations to determine actual conditions are not made
3. Contradictory decisions are given on similar cases

C. An independent judiciary, beyond the reach of the people, is contrary to our governmental ideals, for
1. We have been working toward more popular government

and 1′. Congress expresses the will of the people more accurately than the opinion of nine judges

D. Such a step is not an experiment on our part, for
1. European courts exercise no such power by passing interests and whims

B. Social legislation is not hindered to any great extent, for
1. Many needed measures have been upheld by the Supreme Court

C. The independent judiciary must be maintained, for
1. If we continue in our mistaken policy of distrusting and limiting the power, and of preventing the exercise of judicial dicretion, our efforts for effective reform in judicial procedure will be doomed to failure

D. Congress is subject to blocs, log-rolling, and pork barrels

E. Such a step would take away from the state governments some of their most cherished rights

How to Find the "Issues" in an Argument

With such information as that just given, before him—*it is very important that the list*

of arguments both for and against be complete—the prospective speaker should carefully seek out the arguments upon which there is a direct clash of opinion between the affirmative and negative. *This clash will reveal what the speaker must prove, if he is to win his case.* For example, in the case of the arguments just cited on the question regarding the Supreme Court, a careful inspection will reveal the fact that there are *two main clashes* of opinion. They are:

I. Is the Supreme Court an impartial tribunal

II. Does Congress express the true will of the people more accurately than an independent judiciary

These clashes, which are found in the discussion of any debatable proposition, are called *the issues.* An *issue* has been defined as *something which neither side can afford to admit.* To illustrate, if the affirmative should admit Issue I above, that is, if it should admit that the Supreme Court *is impartial,* its case would be greatly damaged. On the other hand if the negative should admit that the Supreme Court *is partial,* its case would be damaged. The same would hold true of Issue II.

Minor Issues Important

Of course, it would be necessary to prove various things in order to prove the Supreme Court partial. These matters would constitute what are known as *minor issues*. Such a *minor issue* under Issue I, above, would be found to be (from inspecting the clashes of opinion again), *social legislation that is really constitutional is hindered by preconceived policies of the Court*. This in turn would need proof, which would doubtless be supplied (if possible) by the citing of specific cases of really constitutional social legislation that has been hindered. Thus the case would proceed until the argument would finally rest on ultimate facts. (This topic has already been partially treated in Lesson V, and the student would do well to review that lesson at this point.)

What it is Safe to Admit

In determining what must be proved in order to frame a successful argument, it is further necessary to examine the clash of opinion to see if there is any matter that can safely be admitted without weakening the argument, for there is clearly no necessity for proving anything that is not necessary to the success of the argument. The general rule in this

matter is to admit all that can *safely* be admitted. What it will be safe to admit must depend upon the subject, and the circumstance of the argument. An almost classic example of admitted matter is found in debates upon the child labor question. Nearly every speaker who advocates federal child labor legislation begins his speech with a picture of the deplorable conditions prevalent because of lax legislation against child labor, and it is the almost universal practice of those opposing federal child labor legislation to "admit all that the opposing gentlemen have said in regard to the deplorable conditions that exist on account of child labor," but, while they do this, to insist that *federal* legislation is not the remedy, or at least that *this particular proposed federal legislation* is not good.

Senator Carl Schurz, of Missouri, in a speech delivered before the United States Senate, in 1872, found it advisable to admit a large part of what his opponents had been saying in regard to conditions in the South. In the course of his introduction, he said:

EXAMPLE OF ADMITTED MATTER FROM A SPEECH BY CARL SCHURZ

". . . In the course of this debate we have listened to some Senators, as they conjured up before our eyes once more all the horrors of the Rebellion,

the wickedness of its conception, how terrible its incidents were, and how harrowing its consequences. Sir, I admit it all; I will not combat the correctness of the picture; and yet if I differ with the gentlemen who drew it, it is because, had the conception of the Rebellion been still more wicked, had its incidents been still more terrible, its consequences still more harrowing, I could not permit myself to forget that in dealing with the question now before us we have to deal not alone with the past, but with the present and future interests of this republic." [3]

What Should Be Thrown Out of an Argument

Sometimes matters that are closely associated with the question under discussion, but *not necessary to the proof of the proposition that is being argued* creep into the clash of opinion or into an argumentative speech. These, of course, should be rigorously excluded. Only those matters that advance one's case should be discussed, for all other discussion is simply wasted effort. Moreover, if an opponent seeks to "cloud the issue" by dragging in such matters, or brings them in unwittingly, the fact should be pointed out, "The members of the Simplified Spelling Board have had to insist, year after year, that they do not advocate 'phonetic spelling'

[3] Quoted in Harding, *Select Orations Illustrating American History*, p. 469; published by The Macmillan Company, New York.

or 'spelling as you please,' but a definite list of improved notations to replace certain 'cherished accidents of time.'" [4]

Having thus *decided upon the issues of the argument,* having *admitted all that can safely be admitted,* and having *rigorously excluded all matters not bearing directly on the argument,* the next step is the building up of the argument itself.

Direct Experience the Best Way to Prove an Argument

In Lesson V it was suggested that all argument at last rests upon facts. Consequently the best way to prove a fact to a person is to let him experience that fact. The best way to prove to a child that fire burns is to let him put his hand in the fire. However, it is often the province of a speaker to enable his audience to avoid the very experience under discussion, just as it is the desire of a parent to convince his child that fire burns without allowing the child to burn itself.

When Authority is Necessary in an Argument

Moreover, it is not possible for one human being to experience *all facts,* and conse-

[4] Foster, *Argumentation and Debating,* p. 39; published by Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

quently a speaker must often resort to other means than direct experience to prove his points. This makes necessary the use of authorities, that is, the testimony of those who have experienced the facts.

Many speakers, however, in their use of authorities are not convincing, that is, when they have quoted the testimony of those who have experienced the facts, they still fail to make their hearers believe the facts to be true. This failure can largely be overcome by an observance of the following laws in regard to authorities:

1. *The reference to the authority should be definite.*

It does little good to say "Mr. Jones in an article in a magazine once said," because the audience may still doubt whether Mr. Jones even wrote such an article. Moreover, if they should desire, later, to find out if Mr. Jones *did* write such an article, they would not know in what magazine to look for it, and should they even know what magazine to consult, they would still be confronted with the task of going through a whole shelf of the bound volumes of back numbers of the magazine. An authority of this kind should be quoted as follows: "Mr. James C. Jones, on page 311 of the October *Atlantic Monthly* of

this year, says:" Such a reference could easily be "checked up" by anyone.

2. *The authority should be capable of giving expert testimony.*

This law really has two parts. First, *the authority should be capable of skilled observation.* The testimony of a professor of botany would be much more satisfactory in regard to the manner of growth of a certain plant, than the testimony of a factory worker on the same point. The testimony of an astronomer as to the length of the earth's orbit about the sun would stand a much better chance of being accepted than the testimony of some teacher of an eighth grade in some small town. In the second place, *the authority must have had an opportunity to experience the facts.* A professor of botany who has specialized in the plants of North America, no matter how noted he might be, would not be as good an authority on Australian plants, as an Australian professor of botany. Likewise, because a certain manufacturer of shoes has attained great distinction in the commercial world, it does not follow that his opinion will be of worth upon a problem involving international diplomacy.

3. *The authority should not be prejudiced.*

This law is almost self-evident. Certainly if one is interested financially, or otherwise, in the outcome of an argument, his testimony in favor of the side that will bring him benefit, will not be of great value. If a manufacturer who will benefit by a protective tariff gives it as his opinion that a proposed protective tariff will be a good tariff, we are inclined to attribute his testimony to his interest in securing a protective tariff. However, the law is not always confined to such glaring cases of self-interest. Often a perfectly honest man will be influenced in his opinion by his pet theories or past experiences. An expert in diet is likely to ascribe many illnesses to bad food, while a dentist may ascribe the same illnesses to bad teeth, a throat specialist to infected tonsils, and a "nature cure" specialist to lack of exercise. The law set down in Lesson V, to the effect that one often "sees what he is looking for" explains many of these cases, and every speaker should carefully see that his authority is not prejudiced by likes and dislikes.

4. *No one authority should be quoted too often.*

This is a very simple law, but many speakers violate it. Especially is a speaker prone to violate it if he greatly admires some one

man. One speaker upon economic problems quotes Henry George and no one else; another quotes only Richard T. Ely; a third quotes only John R. Commons. Any one of these speakers would do better to quote from a larger range of authority, for he would thus avoid reproducing the prejudices of a single authority, and would give the impression of having *an army of authority* back of his statements rather than the support of only one man.

5. *It is valuable to quote from an authority used by opponents.*

This law is especially of worth, because, if the authority is considered worthy of quotation by opponents on certain points, there is the chance that they cannot very well refuse to accept his testimony on other facts. The greatest use of this law, however, is found when the speaker can quote a *later utterance* of the authority used by opponents, for such a quotation shows that the authority, upon more mature consideration, *changed his mind,* and is now believing in the other side of the question. This law is of value also, in exposing the "garbling" of quotations by opponents. Often dishonest speakers quote only part of what an authority really has said. If a speaker can in reply quote the *en-*

tire utterance of the authority, the face of affairs is often changed.

6. *The authority should be such as the audience will accept.*

This, after all, is the supreme test of any reference to authority. It does little good to cite the greatest authority in the world, if the audience is not willing to accept his testimony. It is difficult to get laboring men to accept the testimony of capitalists, if the testimony is contrary to their interests. It is difficult to get pacifists to accept the testimony of army officers in regard to the need for an increase in our defensive forces. Sometimes, however, the failure to accept an authority is not so much due to prejudice as to ignorance. The audience may simply be unacquainted with the authority. In such a case the best thing to do is to tell the audience something about the authority, that is, the speaker should enter upon a little argument all his own to prove that the authority ought to be acceptable. This is not desirable, however, unless no acceptable authority is available, and often the same effect can be secured by briefly mentioning a few of the official titles of the authority which will show his fitness to testify.

But after the *facts* of an argument have

been established, there is still left perhaps the most important part of a complete argument, that is, the *reasoning* about these facts. It is by reasoning about facts that we arrive at most of our knowledge and regulate our conduct. Now, we may use facts in several ways to build up a complete argument.

Reasoning by Induction

First, we may observe a large number of facts and draw from our observation of these facts a general law. This is called reasoning by *induction* or *generalization.* For example, if I observe that walnut wood burns, that hickory wood burns, that pine wood burns, that oak wood burns, and so on until I have observed hundreds of kinds of wood that burn, I may draw the conclusion that *all wood burns.*

Now, if in the preceding example in regard to the fact that wood burns, I have examined *all* kinds of wood, the induction is said to be a *perfect induction.* Obviously, however, if the induction is *perfect,* there can no longer be any argument, and, consequently, most inductive arguments take the form of *imperfect* inductions, since most arguments are indulged in for the purpose of establishing, as well as may be, truths which cannot be absolutely known, and for regulating con-

duct for the future, which is always more or less unknown. An imperfect induction, of course, implies a *guess* in regard to the facts which have not been observed. This guess is called the *inductive hazard,* and involves a "leap in the dark." This leap must be taken, however, if a definite conclusion is to be drawn. To refer again to the example of the burning of wood, if I have not examined every kind of wood, there may be a *chance* that there is *some* kind of wood that will not burn, but I must take this chance if I have to make a decision at the present moment as to whether all wood will burn or not.

How to avoid chance of error in taking the "leap in the dark" involved in any imperfect induction is important, and the following tests will be found valuable.

Tests for Inductive Reasoning

1. See to it that the unobserved facts are few enough to warrant the induction.
2. See to it that the observed facts are fair examples of the facts to be observed.
3. See to it that there are no exceptions as far as you have gone.

Example of Inductive Reasoning

A more complex example of inductive reasoning may prove helpful. Here is one from

an editorial in *Harper's Weekly*.[5] The general truth that is being proved in this paragraph is that *"the United States has improved* conditions in Cuba." Several *conditions* are therefore examined and since these all show improvement, it is concluded that, *in general,* the United States has improved conditions in Cuba. This general truth is not stated in the paragraph itself, but is left to the reader to supply.

"The United States Government may felicitate itself upon the fact that it found Cuba unhealthy and leaves it healthy; it found her without adequate system of charities and hospitals and it leaves her a well established one; it found her without schools and it leaves her with a good school law and a good school system established. It found the island filled with beggars and with an empty treasury; it leaves it without beggars, its people with enough to eat, and with a reserve of about a million and a half dollars in the treasury. It found her without any knowledge of popular elections and without an electoral law; it has given her both. It found the insane without any systematic treatment whatever, caged up like animals; it leaves them assembled in the large hospital under the best available treatment. It found her prisons indescribably bad, and leaves them as good as the average prisons of the United States. It has built up a good system of sanitary supervision throughout the island. It has built and put into

[5] Quoted by Phillips, *Effective Speaking*, p. 82; published by the Newton Company, Chicago.

commission a small fleet of coast guard launches, or revenue cutters. It has collected the revenues at a figure which compares favorably with the cost of collection in the United States. It has buoyed the harbors and has added very largely to the lighthouses and lights of the island. An immense amount of road and bridge building has been done. It has organized a system of civil service for the municipal police throughout the island in order to protect them in their rights and secure them from arbitrary dismissal. It has enlisted, equipped, trained and thoroughly established a Rural Guard which will compare favorably with any similar force, and not over one per cent of those employed in this work has come from beyond the borders of Cuba herself. For the first time in history the carpetbagger in a situation of this kind has been held in subjection and every penny of the trust has been administered for the benefit of the ward."

Reasoning by Analogy

Another form of reasoning, closely allied to inductive reasoning, is *analogy*. In analogy, however, instead of examining a number of cases, the speaker examined only one case, and concludes because this case and the one under consideration are alike in a number of particulars they are alike in another. A typical example of reasoning by analogy is found in the case of a proposed oil well. In this case a certain group of men are considering the chances of striking oil in a certain

locality and they base their reasoning on the fact that oil has been struck in a certain well already drilled near the site of the proposed well. They say to themselves: "We ought to strike oil here, for in the case of the *Eldorado* well just a short distance from this site, oil was struck. Moreover, there is a rise in the coastal plain in the vicinity of the *Eldorado* well, and there is a rise in the coastal plain at the site of this proposed well. Further, we can secure the services of the drill-superintendent that put down the *Eldorado* well so successfully." Thus they reason that because the *Eldorado* well and this proposed well are alike in so many particulars they will be alike in another particular, namely, that of producing oil. A great many advertising campaigns are planned from analogy. If chewing gum can be sold by the million cases by such and such a system of advertising, the candy manufacturer reasons that millions of fruit-wafers can be sold in the same way. Of course, many analogies fail, but many are successful. Whether the analogy fails or succeeds is dependent upon how closely the two cases are alike.

Here is a graphic way to represent reasoning from analogy.

	a	*b*	*c*	*d*	*e*	*f*
Case A (known case)	x	x	x	x	x	x
Case X (proposed case)	x	x	x	x	x	?

Here one reasons that because Case A and Case X are alike in the particulars *a, b, c, d,* and *e,* they are also alike in the case of the particular *f,* which is known to be true of Case A, but is not known to be true of Case X.

The scientist Tyndall[6] points out in the following paragraph a successful application of reasoning from analogy:

"The notion that epidemic diseases may be due to germs which float in the atmosphere, enter the body, and produce disturbance by the development within the body of parastic life, is founded on the perfect parallelism of the phenomena of contagious diseases with those of life. As a planted acorn gives birth to an oak competent to produce a whole crop of acorns, each gifted with the power of reproducing its parent tree; and as thus from a single seedling a whole forest may spring; so, it is contended, these epidemic diseases literally plant their seeds, grow and shake abroad new germs, which meeting in the human body their proper food and temperature, finally take possession of whole populations. There is nothing to my knowledge in pure chemistry which resembles the power of self-multiplication possessed by the

[6] Tyndall, *Fragments of Science,* p. 132. Quoted by MacEwan, *Essentials of Argument,* p. 165; published by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

matter which produces epidemic diseases. If you sow wheat, you do not get barley; if you sow small-pox you do not get scarlet fever, but small-pox indefinitely multiplied, and nothing else. The matter of each contagious disease reproduces itself as rigidly as if it were (as Miss Nightingale puts it) dog or cat."

Here are some tests for analogy:

1. *Are the similarities of the two cases essential for the case in hand?*

Not all likenesses are of value in reasoning from analogy. Poisonous mushrooms and non-poisonous mushrooms look very much alike, but many a decision based on these non-essential likenesses has led to fatal consequences. To carry the example of the oil well mentioned in a preceding paragraph a little further, if Mr. A. is contemplating buying stock in the proposed oil well, he would be very unwise to base his decision upon the mere facts which would lead him to believe that oil would be struck. He should also take into consideration the honesty of the men back of the enterprise, for if the men were dishonest they might abscond with his money without even completing the well. In this case the *honesty of the promoters is essential.* To turn the case about, the probability of striking oil is essential also, for if the men *were honest,* unless there were a

probability of striking oil, the enterprise would likewise prove a failure. Thus, everyone using analogy should be sure that the likenesses of the two cases are essential likenesses for the case in hand.

2. *Are the facts upon which the analogy is based true?*

To use again the example of the oil well cited above, if there *is* no rise in the coastal plain in the case of the proposed oil well, if the services of the same drill-superintendent *are not forthcoming,* or if oil was not struck in the *Eldorado* well, evidently the analogy becomes false. The facts upon which the case is based must all be true.

A certain editorial in a Baltimore paper perhaps was guilty of a false analogy in the following example.[1]

"A Baltimore newspaper, in an attempt to prove that military drill should be compulsory for boys in the public high schools of that city, cited the experience of Boston as an example. The argument ran somewhat like this: Boston and Baltimore resemble each other closely in all the features which bear essentially on the question; therefore, since military drill has been successful in Boston high schools, it would prove successful in Baltimore high schools. The inference in this argument from analogy

[1] Foster *Argumentation and Debating,* p. 158; published by Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

appears to have no glaring defects; it stands all the tests. But the alleged facts may well be questioned. Has military drill really been a success in the schools of Boston? This test of the facts, rather than the tests of the reasoning process, reveals the weakness of the argument."

Deductive Argument

Some fields of knowledge have already been so throughly investigated and such incontrovertible laws discovered within them, that it is not necessary to go clear back to individual facts. A speaker in such cases may start at once with a general law, and apply the law to an individual case. Such an argument is called a *deductive* argument. For example:

All men are mortal.
John Jones is a man.
Therefore, John Jones is mortal.

In such an example there is no difficulty, of course. However, the same mode of reasoning can be employed in less obvious cases. Here is an example from a speech by Edward A. Filene:[8]

Example of Deductive Argument

"What has happened and is happening to New England is the same thing that has happened to

[8] Quoted by Homer R. Lindgren, *Modern Speeches*, p. 47; published by F. S. Crofts & Co., New York.

many of the most successful businesses. There are innumerable instances of enterprises, which, having attained great success through constant initiative and business courage, thereupon deified the methods and machinery of their past success, forgetting that that success was won through fearless initiative and rapid adaptation to changing times.

"What is happening is the same thing that has happened to most of the nationally advertised products of a generation ago. The older men among you will recall, as I do, trade names that were household words some years ago but are no longer heard. And it was not lack of advertising that put them down and out, but inability to compete. They did not keep up with new conditions, did not continue to use the enterprise and initiative that had made them successful.

"That, I think tells what ails New England. An expert told me recently that New England suffers from failing to keep her machinery up to date. More important than modern machinery is up-to-date organization. New England must keep up to or ahead of her competitors in methods of production and distribution."

In this example the general law from which Mr. Filene starts is: "There are innumerable instances of (failures of) enterprises, which, having attained great success through constant initiative and business courage, thereupon deified the methods and machinery of their past success, forgetting that that success was won through fearless initiative and rapid adaptation to changing times."

The specific instance to which he applies this general law is "New England business." After he has done this, his conclusion follows inevitably. Put in brief form the argument runs as follows:

Businesses that fail to keep up-to-date will fail.

New England businesses are failing to keep up-to-date.

Therefore, New England businesses will fail.

There are tests for *deductive* argument, just as there are tests for the *inductive* argument, and for *argument from analogy.* Here are two good ones:[9]

1. *Are both premises true?*

In the case of New England business, cited above, the speaker should be sure that it is *true* that businesses which fail to keep up-to-date fail, and he should also be sure that New England business is not keeping up-to-date. If either of these facts is challenged the speaker's only resort is to adduce evidence of the fact that they *are* true—this usually by falling back upon facts and inductive reasoning.

[9] Adapted from *Practical Argumentation* by George K. Pattee, p. 138; published by The Century Company, New York.

2. Is the fact stated of the specific case an instance of the general law?

In the above example regarding New England business, the speaker must prove that the policy now being pursued by New England is an example of the policy pursued by those commercial concerns mentioned in his general law.

Reasoning from Effect to Cause

When a person sees footprints in the snow leading up to and away from his front door, he may be reasonably certain that some one has been at the door. This is reasoning from effect to cause. The footprints are the effect of some one's walking to the front door and then walking away from it. The person's walking to the door is the cause. Lately, when the serious illness of the head of a great financial corporation was announced in the papers, there was a decrease in the market price of the securities of that corporation. Here the drop in the market price of the securities was the effect, and the illness of the head of the corporation was probably the cause. Such reasoning is extremely common, and is of very great use to a speaker, for a correct determination of the causes of past events enables one more definitely to forecast

the future. For example, financial experts by determining that there was a great strain upon the currency at crop-moving time reasoned that if the currency could be expanded at crop-moving time, the strain would be removed, and so hit upon federal reserve notes.

Here is an example of effect-to-cause reasoning as employed by Edward C. Plummer, Commissioner of the United States Shipping Board, before the Washington Board of Trade:[10]

"Neither this Shipping Board, nor any other Shipping Board, Bureau, Commission or individual, however selected, can enable the bulk of these freight ships now owned by the United States to compete successfully with foreign craft, unless Government aid is given them. This is not a matter of opinion; it is a fact.

"Yet, would-be advisers keep telling the public that the Shipping Board should sell these ships; implying that if it was willing to sell the problem would be solved.

"For two years the Board has been offering these ships for sale at thirty dollars a ton—an outrageously low figure. Why don't buyers come forward? Why don't these critics jump at this bargain? The answer is that no sensible man is going into a business where he knows beforehand that for every dollar he spends he can get back only about ninety cents or less.

[10] Quoted by Homer R. Lindgren, *Modern Speeches*, p. 191; published by F. S. Crofts & Co., New York.

"On September 6 just past, Lloyd's List reports on the trial trip of a ten-thousand-ton collier built in England for the Berwind-White Coal Co., to carry coal from Norfolk to the West Indies. At the time this vessel was being built, the Shipping Board was offering for sale ten-thousand-ton freighters at half the cost of that ship. But the extra cost of operating under the American flag was such a compelling element that business sense justified the action taken.

"This is only one of many cases which show conclusively the impossibility of American ships carrying cargoes to and from this country without Government aid. This is why I make the unqualified prediction that failure to give Government aid, which aid a majority of the Congressional Commission of 1904-5 found should be five dollars per gross ton per year for freight vessels, means the scrap heap for the bulk of these vessels within five years."

Here the effects are that the United States freighters cannot be sold at thirty dollars a ton, and that a collier was built for the Berwind-White Coal Company at twice the cost of a similar ship offered for sale by the United States; the cause which Mr. Plummer assigns is the extra cost of operating under the American flag.

Certain errors should be guarded against in reasoning from effect to cause:

1. *Care should be taken that the supposed cause is not merely another effect of the real cause.*

"The advocates of an increase in the amount of money in circulation have held repeatedly that much money is the cause of wealth, because when there is much money in circulation there is much wealth. It is in reality the prosperous condition of business throughout the country which produces the wealth and demands the increase in the medium of exchange. Both are effects of one cause." [11]

2. *Care should be taken that the supposed cause is not associated with the known effect merely by chance.*

This is the error that lies back of many of our popular superstitions. Because a black cat crosses the path of some one it is argued that that person will have bad luck, merely because *by chance* some people have had bad luck after black cats have crossed their path. A great many speakers have attributed the great increase in bank savings since the passage of the Eighteenth Amendment to prohibition. How far prohibition has *caused* this increase and how the increase is due to the *mere chance* that at the time of the passage of the Eighteenth Amendment the United States was entering upon a period of prosperity is an open question.

3. *Care should be taken that the supposed cause really existed before the known effect.*

[11] Foster, *Argumentation and Debate,* p. 194; published by Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

Here is a paragraph from the speech of Homer S. Cummings at the National Democratic Convention held in San Francisco, 1920.[12] Notice that in this paragraph Mr. Cummings attributes certain reforms to the Democratic party, implying that they were the originators of them, while Senator Beveridge, (See p. 47) in mentioning certain of these reforms, attributes their origin to Republicans. If what Senator Beveridge said is true, and if the Democratic party gave these reforms "belated and unfriendly" support, then Mr. Cummings is attributing these reforms to a cause which operated after the effect. Compare the paragraphs from Senator Beveridge's speech with this paragraph from the speech of Mr. Cummings: (Notice the *italics*.)

"The income tax was made a permanent part of the revenue-producing agencies of the country, thereby relieving our law of the reproach of being unjustly burdensome to the poor. The extravagances and inequities of the tariff system were removed; *and a Non-partisan Tariff Commission was established so that future revisions might be made in the light of accurate information, scientifically and impartially obtained.* Pan-Americanism was encouraged; and the bread thus cast upon the inter-

[12] Quoted by O'Neill, *Models of Speech Composition*, p. 391; published by The Century Company, New York.

national waters came back to us many-fold. The great reaches of Alaska were opened up to commerce and development. Dollar diplomacy was destroyed. A corrupt lobby was driven from the national capitol. An effective seaman's act was adopted. *The Federal Trade Commission was created. Child labor legislation was enacted.* The parcel post and the rural free delivery were developed. A good roads bill and a rural credits act were passed. A Secretary of Labor was given a seat in the Cabinet of the President. Eight-hour laws were adopted. The Clayton amendment to the Sherman anti-trust act was passed, freeing American labor and taking it from the category of commodities. The Smith-Lever bill for the improvement of agricultural conditions was enacted. A corrupt practice act was adopted. A well-considered warehouse act was passed. Federal employment bureaus were created. Farm loan banks, postal savings banks and the federal reserve system were established."

4. *Care should be taken that the supposed cause was capable of producing the known effect.*

Consider carefully the following paragraph[13] and decide whether you think the amount of money spent by Massachusetts on education is sufficient cause for the effects described:

[13] Quoted by MacEwan, *Essentials of Argumentation*, p. 120; published by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

"After two hundred and fifty years, Massachusetts is now giving more education of all sorts, to all its people, than any other American State. As a result, the average production of each of her two million, five hundred thousand people is seventy-three cents per day, while the average in the United States, as a whole, is but forty cents a day. And this is a State that, two hundred years ago, presented fewer attractions to the seeker after wealth than almost any section of America outside of New England. Without a navigable river, or a mineral plant of any considerable importance; half her territory a hillside which a western farmer 'would not take as a gift'; two or three harbors on a stormy coast, and a climate so tremendous that, for generations, it almost decimated its people, this Commonwealth of eight thousand square miles is perhaps, relatively, the richest corner of the earth. To-day, the excess of the earnings of its population above the American average is $250,000,000 a year; just the sum laid up in its savings banks by its laboring population who invest in sums less than five hundred dollars. And to-day one third of this population is composed of immigrants, chiefly from the peasant class of countries where the condition of the peasantry has been the by-word of history. There is no other rational way of accounting for this marvelous industrial success than the persistence of the people in this State in supporting every agency of popular education for two hundred and fifty years. Here is no secret of ready money-making; and the Bay State today stands on this eminence of success, saying to all commonwealths and all peoples: 'Go and do likewise.'"

Reasoning from Cause to Effect

Often cause-and-effect reasoning operates in the opposite direction from the way it has been shown to operate in the preceding examples. Often a cause is pointed out and an effect of that cause predicted. This is a common mode of reasoning among political speakers. They say: "Here is the platform upon which we stand; here is our candidate. With these as causes, may we not predict a successful administration?" Consider the following paragraphs from the speech of Albert J. Beveridge at the Auditorium in Chicago:[14]

"The Progressive and Republican platforms of 1916 agree upon all these plans so vital to our national welfare. These platforms declare the will of the two great bodies of citizens which together constitute the army of constructive liberalism in America. In this campaign that army is fighting as a unit to free the American people from the rusty chains of an age that is past and give them their rightful place among the nations. The party in power failed to do this work because it still is ruled by the spirit of localism, still obeys the voice of the demagogue, still heeds the counsels of the charlatan. The Clayton law adds to the confusion with which the Sherman law already had maddened business; and the Trade Commission admits that it cannot tell

[14] Quoted by O'Neill, *Models of Speech Composition*, p. 373; published by The Century Company, New York.

the meaning of either. It is so feeble that it menaces by the distrust which its inefficiency creates the establishment hereafter of a real commission to do the real work for which American business has so long been pleading.

"The administration boasts of 'constructive laws.' Where did they come from? Who originated the Currency Law? A Republican. Who was the author of the National Child Labor Law? A Progressive and Republican. Who proposed and framed the Tariff Commission Law? The same man who originated National Child Labor legislation. Who advanced the idea of a National Trade Commission? An eminent American business man —a Progressive and Republican.

"And during all the long years of fighting for these reforms Mr. Wilson and his party frowned upon and opposed them. Only when the fight was finished and public opinion so firmly behind these progressive measures that the forces of reaction and localism dared oppose them no longer, did Mr. Wilson change his mind and force a reluctant and grumbling party to half-heartedly support them. And this was done at the twelfth hour under the compulsion of terror of the impending election. How will laws, so originated and so enacted, be executed by a power thus belated and unfriendly?"

Here Senator Beveridge points out the fact that the Republicans and Progressives are fighting for "constructive liberalism" and that the Democrats have only given "belated and unfriendly" support to such measures. This is his cause, and he predicts the effect

that business will prosper under Progressive leadership, but not under Democratic leadership.

Certain errors should also be guarded against when reasoning from cause to effect:

1. *Care should be taken that the known cause is strong enough to produce the alleged effect.*

"A few years ago the advocates of free silver were maintaining that 'sixteen to one' would be a sure cure for all poverty and financial distress. A careful application of this test would have materially weakened such an argument. Believers in reformatory rather than punitive methods of imprisonment say it is antecendently probable that kind treatment, healthful surroundings, and instruction in various directions will reclaim most criminals to an honest life. Before accepting or rejecting this argument, one should decide in his own mind whether or not such a treatment is adequate to make a released convict give up his former criminal practices."[15]

2. *Care should be taken that there be little possibility that the known cause will be prevented from accomplishing its alleged effect by some other cause that may intervene and prevent its action.*

"During the spring of 1908 it was generally known that the Erie Railroad had no money with

[15] Pattee, *Practical Argumentation,* p. 144; published by The Century Company, New York.

which to pay the interest that was about due on its outstanding bonds. Wall Street prophesied that the road would go into a receiver's hands. This result was extremely probable. Mr. Harriman, however, president of the Union Pacific, stepped in and by arranging for the payment of the interest saved the road from bankruptcy. This was an example of how an intervening cause prevented the action of the assigned cause. When Congress passed the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution, many people said that this legislation would inevitably cause the social, political, and financial ruin of the whole South. Since they did not take into consideration the intervening action of another cause, namely, drastic measures for negro disfranchisement by the white inhabitants of the South, their reasoning from antecedent probability was entirely erroneous." [16]

The whole matter of cause and effect is so intricate that the student may do well to ponder the following paragraph.[17]

"An additional source of error in determining political causation is likewise to be found in the *mutuality of cause and effect*. It happens sometimes that when a relation of causation is established between two facts it is hard to decide which, in the given case, is the cause and which the effect, because they act and react upon each other, each phenomenon being in turn cause and effect. Thus, habits of in-

[16] Pattee, *Practical Argumentation,* p. 145; published by The Century Company, New York.

[17] By Sir George Cornwall Lewis; quoted by MacEwan, *Essentials of Argument,* p. 121; published by D. C. Heath & Company, Boston.

dustry may produce wealth, while the acquisition of wealth may promote industry; again, habits of study may sharpen the understanding, and the increased acuteness of the understanding may afterward increase the appetite for study. So the excess of population may, by impoverishing the laboring classes, be the cause of their living in bad dwellings; and, again, bad dwellings, by deteriorating the moral habits of the poor, may stimulate population. The general intelligence and good sense of the people may promote its good government, and the goodness of the government may in its turn increase the intelligence of the people, and contribute to the formation of sound opinions among them. Drunkenness is in general the consequence of a low degree of intelligence, as may be observed both among savages and in civilized countries. But, in return, a habit of drunkenness prevents the cultivation of the intellect, and strengthens the cause out of which it grows. As Plato remarks, education improves nature, and nature facilitates education. National character, again, is both effect and cause; it reacts on the circumstances from which it arises. The national peculiarities of a people, its race, physical structures, climate, territories, etc., form originally a certain character, which tends to create certain institutions, political and domestic, in harmony with that character. These institutions strengthen, perpetuate, and reproduce the character out of which they grew, and so on in succession, each new effect becoming, in its turn, a new cause. Thus a brave, energetic, restless nation, exposed to attack from neighbors, organizes military institutions: these institutions promote and maintain a warlike spirit;

this warlike spirit, again, assists the development of the military organization, and it is further promoted by territorial conquests and success in war, which may be its result—each successive effect thus adding to the cause out of which it sprang."

NOTE: Many writers on argument speak of an argument from *effect to effect,* as when a man listens to the tick of his watch to determine whether the hands are moving (whether the watch is running). Such arguments are really only *effect to cause* and *cause to effect* combined. In the case of the watch the person reasons from the tick of the watch to the unimpaired condition of the watch (or the free working of the mainspring) and from the unimpaired condition of the watch to the movement of the hands.

Many writers also mention an *argument from sign,* as when, from seeing decorations in a town, we infer that a celebration is in progress. Here the argument may be one of effect to cause, reasoning from the effect (decorations) to the cause (the celebration), or it may be an argument based upon induction, reasoning from the many instances in experience when decorations have been present in times of celebration.

HOW TO REFUTE AN ARGUMENT

So far in this lesson material has been given that will aid in *building* a good argument. The remaining portion of the lesson

will be devoted to material that will aid in *tearing down* an argument made by an opponent. In this process all the laws that have so far been given will be found useful, for if a speaker knows how to construct a good argument of his own, he will probably be able to see where his opponent fails in constructing a good argument.

First, then, the speaker who undertakes to tear down an argument made by an opponent should carefully decide what *kind* of argument it is. He should consider whether it is (1) an argument by induction, that is, a generalization from a number of examples, (2) an argument from analogy, that is, a comparison of two specific examples, (3) an argument by deduction, that is, the bringing of a specific case within a general law, or (4) an argument from cause to effect or effect to cause.

Second, the various tests that have been given for constructing an argument of the particular kind being used by the opponent should be applied. For convenience, these tests are here tabulated. It would be well for the student to thoroughly memorize these tables, so that, in a moment, at his seat on the platform, or even in the midst of his speaking, he can apply the tests.

TABLE I

Tests for an Inductive Argument

1. Has my opponent observed a *large enough number* of examples to warrant his assertion?
2. Were they *fair* examples?
3. Has he overlooked any *exceptions?*

TABLE II

Tests for an Argument from Analogy

1. Are the similarities of the two cases cited by my opponent *essential* for the case in hand?
2. Are the facts upon which he bases his analogy *true?*

TABLE III

Tests for a Deductive Argument

1. Is the *general law* that my opponent has cited *true?*
2. Is the assertion which he makes in regard to *the specific case true?*
3. Is the fact stated in regard to the specific case *an instance of the general law?*

TABLE IV

Tests for an Argument from Effect to Cause

1. Is the cause cited by my opponent *merely another effect* of the real cause?
2. Is the cause cited by my opponent associated with the effect *merely by chance?*
3. Did the cause cited by my opponent *exist before the effect?*
4. Is the cause cited by my opponent *capable of producing the effect?*

TABLE V

Tests for an Argument from Cause to Effect

1. Is the cause cited by my opponent capable *of producing the effect?*
2. May not some other cause *prevent the working* of the cause assigned by my opponent?

Often the argument of an opponent seems sound in itself, provided the facts upon which it is based are true, but the truth of the facts upon which the argument itself is based seems questionable. In such a case it is often of value to test the authority used by the opponent in support of his facts. Here are the tests for authority in regard to facts:

TABLE VI

Tests for Authority in Regard to Facts

1. Is the reference to authority made by my opponent *definite?*
2. Is the authority my opponent cites *capable of giving expert testimony?*
3. Is the authority *prejudiced?*
4. Does my opponent *rely too much on one authority?*

The tests that have just been given for the various kinds of arguments assume that the opponent's argument really concerns the question being discussed. Often, however, a speaker is inclined to discuss "everything under the sun" except the point at issue. In such cases, the only thing to do is to point out that the opponent is really doing this,—that he is not "sticking to the question." This may be done in several ways:

1. *It may be pointed out that he is inferring from the character, profession, or conduct of an individual the truth or falsity of the assertion.*

For example, if a notorious rascal should one day propose a good law, his opponent might say: "This man for twenty years has been behind every money-grabbing measure

brought before this body. He is behind this measure, and we may well infer that this, too, is a money-grabbing measure. There is 'a nigger in the woodpile somewhere.'" Such an argument is, of course, entirely worthless unless the villainy of the measure can actually be proved in some other way, for it may well have happened that *for once* this man is on the right side, or he may have seen the error of his ways and been converted to honorable dealing.

2. *It may be pointed out that he is appealing merely to tradition, prejudice, or sense of humor.*

For example, if a speaker should say, "I do not know much about these new-fangled ideas about the currency, but, for my part, 'the dollar of our daddies' is good enough for me," he would be appealing to tradition. Such an argument is useless, of course, unless it is based on a well-founded induction to the effect that there have been no serious financial crises while "the dollar of our daddies" was in use, and even such an argument would be open to defect, inasmuch as the *present* conditions may be different from the conditions of the past. One can never build a logically sound argument on the principle that "what always has been, will be," for

some new cause may intervene to change conditions. An example of an appeal to prejudice was found for a time in the common assertion among speakers that certain governmental reforms were "socialistic." In this assertion there was, at the time it was made effectively, a certain prejudice against "socialism." Now, however, "socialistic reforms" are found on every side, and the appeal has lost its force. To-day, when a speaker characterizes a measure as "Utopian," or "idealistic" or "visionary," he is largely using the same appeal. Really, of course, aside from mere prejudice, there is nothing wrong with a measure which is "idealistic," that is, one which strives for the realization of ideals. Humor in an opponent is perhaps one of the most difficult things to combat. Recently a great minister was asked the question "Should a man change his vocation after he is forty years of age?" In answering the question from his pulpit, the minister said: "My answer to this question would be 'No,' for, in the first place, there is a chance that the man will not be any happier in his second vocation than in his first. How is it with divorce? I ask you people out there in the congregation who have been divorced and have married again, are you any

happier now than you were before?" The audience roared aloud in merriment, but the minister had offered no adequate proof.

3. *It may be pointed out that he has "shifted ground."*

For example, if the assertion being argued is whether the soul is immortal or not, and a speaker should say: "Whatever is eternal has neither beginning nor end; the human soul has a beginning; therefore the human soul is not eternal"; the skilful debater could point out that *eternal* does not mean the same as *immortal,* and that although the soul may not be eternal because it has a beginning, yet it may still be immortal, for it may live forever,[18] and could accuse his opponent of starting out to prove one thing, namely, the immortality of the soul, and of concluding by proving something else, namely, that the soul is not eternal.

4. *It may be pointed out that he has overlooked a part of the question.*

This mistake on the part of an opponent usually happens when he is considering various possibilities in connection with the case. For example, during the agitation of the negro question, the pro-slavery advocates

[18] Adapted from MacEwan, *Essentials of Argument,* p. 102; published by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

constantly accused those who opposed slavery of advocating social and political equality between the negroes and white people. Lincoln pointed out that it did not follow that because he did not want a negro woman for a slave he wanted her for a wife. Said he:

"I say upon this occasion that I do not perceive that because the white man is to have the superior position the negro should be denied everything. I do not understand that because I do not want a negro woman for a slave I must necessarily want her for a wife. My understanding is that I can just let her alone. I am now in my fiftieth year, and I certainly never have had a black woman for either a slave or a wife. So it seems to me quite possible for us to get along without either making slaves or wives of negroes." [19]

Sometimes a Speaker Makes a Poor Argument by Assuming too Much at the Beginning

Besides the error of ignoring the real assertion that is being discussed, a speaker often assumes so much, at the very beginning of his argument, that he has really assumed (without proof) the very thing under discussion. For example, if the question un-

[19] Cooper Institute Speech, *Modern Eloquence*, Vol. X, p. 197; published by Modern Eloquence Corporation, New York.

der discussion were "Resolved, that the game of football should be abolished," a speaker would be assuming too much if he should begin his speech by saying: "Ladies and Gentlemen, we are discussing tonight the question of whether or not we shall abolish the brutal game of football." In such a case the very question under discussion is whether or not football *is* brutal. Sometimes a speaker, too, takes unfair advantage in defining his terms. If a speaker were to discuss the assertion: "Resolved, that usurious rates of interest should be made illegal," and then should proceed to define usurious rates of interest as any rates above four per cent, he would be assuming too much. A teacher in a Sabbath school was once asked if there were any corroborating evidence of the miracle ascribed to Elijah in the Old Testament, when, to the confusion of the prophets of Baal, he brought down fire from heaven to consume the sacrifice on the altar. Without a moment's hesitation the teacher replied, "Yes, it says right in the account that there were ten thousand witnesses present." This teacher was evidently assuming too much, for he was assuming the very fact under discussion, namely, whether the account in the Bible is true.

When a speaker commits such errors as have been enumerated in the last paragraph, the only thing to do, of course, is to point out that he has made these errors.

Some Special Methods of Refuting an Argument

Reducing an Argument to the Absurd

Often an argument may be overthrown by the method that is called *reducing to the absurd*. In this method of refutation, the opposing argument is accepted for the moment as true and then another conclusion that is obviously absurd is drawn from it. Lincoln used this method in his Cooper Institute Address. Said he:

"You say you will not abide the election of a Republican president! In that supposed event you say you will destroy the Union; and then, you say, the great crime of having destroyed it will be upon us! That is cool. A highwayman holds a pistol to my ear, and mutters through his teeth, 'Stand and deliver or I shall kill you, and then you will be a murderer!'"

Another example of the same method was used against those who once desired to annex the island of San Domingo to the United States. Said the opponents of this policy:

Suppose we do annex San Domingo because of its geographical proximity. What shall we do next? We shall then find ourselves in geographical proximity to other islands of the same group. Well, then, we shall annex them! And after that we are in geographical proximity to South America, and we shall annex that, too, on account of geographical proximity!

Humor is nearly always present in the use of this method. The following example is a good one.

"When a lawyer asserted in court that a corporation can make no oral contract because it had no tongue, the judge exposed the fallacy by saying, simply, 'Then, according to your own argument, a corporation could not make a written contract because it has no hand.' "[20]

Refuting an Argument by the Method of Residues

A method called the *Method of Residues* can often be successfully employed in refuting an argument. In this method, several conclusions are expressed, and then all of them but one are shown to be false, the im-

[20] Quoted by Foster, *Argumentation and Debate*, p. 229; published by Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

plication being that the remaining one is true. The following example presents a typical case where two conclusions are presented.

"If the thesis is, 'Man is a free agent,' then the antithesis is, 'Man is not a free agent.' Now man is either free or he is not free. Let us assume that he is not free. If he is not free, he cannot, in cases of conflicting motives, choose, but must blindly follow one of the impulses. But we know from consciousness that he can decide between conflicting motives; therefore, it is false that he is not free. He must, therefore, be free." [21]

Sometimes three or even four conclusions are presented. Huxley used three in his introductory lecture on evolution. Two of these he overthrew and then left the third (evolution) standing. Burke, in his Speech on Conciliation used four. One he dismissed as already rejected, the next two he showed impractical, and then left the fourth standing. MacEwan [22] says of this method: "The method must be used with care. All possible theories must be enumerated, and this neces-

[21] Quoted from Hepburn, by MacEwan, *Essentials of Argumentation*, p. 81; published by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

[22] MacEwan, *Essentials of Argumentation*, p. 83; published by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

sitates an exhaustive analysis of the subject. Convincing reasons must be given for the rejection of all hypotheses but one. Then, lest there be a possible hypothesis omitted, or a gap left in the reasoning, direct proofs must be given to confirm the conclusion reached by indirect arguments."

The Dilemma

Closely akin to the *Method of Residues* is the *Dilemma.* In the dilemma, the case is reduced to two alternatives and then *both* of these are destroyed. MacEwan[23] also gives an excellent example of the dilemma: "Victor Hugo confronts Javert, a police inspector, with this dilemma: Jean Valjean, an escaped convict, had spared Javert's life. Javert must decide whether he can now honorably re-arrest the convict, and subject him to capital punishment:—'What should he do now? Give up Jean Valjean? That would be wrong. Leave Jean Valjean free? That would be wrong. In the first case, the man of authority would fall lower than the man of the galleys; in the second, the convict rose higher than the law and set his foot upon it; in both cases, dishonor to Javert. In every case that was open to him, there was a fall.'"

[23] MacEwan, *Essentials of Argumentation;* published by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

The great difficulty in using the dilemma is that often not all the alternatives are mentioned. If there is a third alternative, it may be the true one. In case an opponent uses the dilemma against a debater, the first thing to do is to seek a third way out.

The Use of Statistics in an Argument

Perhaps one of the most important sources of error in argument is found in the use of statistics, and every speaker who is desirous of ability to build a good argument, or overthrow a poor argument, should thoroughly understand the errors that are likely to creep in when an argument is based upon figures.

The following tests[24] will be found of value.

Tests for Statistics

1. Precisely what is meant by the units which make up the totals?
2. To what extent is the quantity measured by the statistics an index of the thing concerning which we want knowledge?
3. Are the units compared really comparable?
4. Do the figures cover a sufficient period of time?

[24] Foster, *Argumentation and Debating*, p. 217; published by Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

5. Is the average a typical measure of the group?

Failure to apply such tests as these often results in poor argument.

If, for example, a speaker should discuss some question in regard to the decline of religion in America, and should say that no decline is evident because in 1915 there were so many "church people" and in 1920 there was an increase of so many thousand "church people," there might be a violation of the first test given above, for there could well be doubt as to just what is meant by "church people." Does "church people" mean "church members" or "people who go to church" or "people who endorse the church"?

If, again, the same question in regard to a decline in religion were under discussion, the question might well be asked, is the number of "church people" any index as to the decline of religion, in other words is the second test given above being violated, for it may be possible that the number of "church people" or "church members" has increased, and yet the "church members" may not practice their religion as they formerly did. On the other hand, also, there might be even a decrease in "church members" and still no decline in religion, for people who are not

church members may be more religious than they ever were before.

In such a question as the efficacy of the Eighteenth Amendment and the Volstead Act in decreasing crime, a speaker might well fall into the error of counting the arrests for violation of the Volstead Act as additional crimes, and thus his figures before the Volstead Act would not be comparable, for arrests for all other crimes than the violation of the Volstead Act might *really* have decreased, and yet the total, counting violations of the Volstead Act might show an increase. In other words, the speaker might easily violate the third test given above.

The fourth test given above, that of not having the figures cover a sufficient period of time is often violated. For example, if an office man should buy a poultry ranch in January, and should see his daily output of eggs increase during February, March, and April, he might argue that he is a poultry expert, and that by the end of the year he will have made "a mint of money," whereas experience would show him that these were exceptional months for eggs, and that figures for these months do not cover a sufficient period of time upon which to base an estimate of the year's earnings.

The last test is perhaps more often violated than any other. A raises his chest and proclaims, "The average salary for teachers in Eldorado Center is over $2,000 a year," yet fails to point out that this "average" includes the salaries of the superintendent of schools and several principals of schools. He is thus violating the test that the "average" should represent the group, for obviously the inclusion of the high salaries of the superintendent and principals destroys the value of the "average" in determining the income of most of the teachers in the community. In such cases as this the "norm" or the figure that occurs most often would be a truer guide. A speaker in a recent speech pointed out that a certain group of Swedish excavators made $1,000 apiece in six weeks. If the wages of this group were averaged in with the wages of one or two hundred other ditch diggers, obviously one would gain a wrong impression as to the wages of ditch diggers.

General Advice Concerning Refutation

No speaker who throughly understands his question and is convinced of the truth of his stand, should fear an opponent, however clever. If the argument of the opponent is based on false facts, this should be clearly shown. If it contains false reason-

ing, the false reasoning should be made apparent. If it is full of argumentative tricks, these tricks should be exposed. Further, no debater should be dismayed at the multitude of an opponent's arguments or charges. These can always be reduced to a few simple propositions which support his contention, and then these few simple propositions can be overthrown. Not even all of these few simple propositions need be attacked, for "a chain is weak if it contains one weak link," and often the overthrow of a single support of a proposition renders the other supporting arguments of no avail, for often the support of all the arguments is necessary for the validity of a proposition.

Where to Place Refutation

If an opponent has made a deep impression on the audience by some of his arguments, it is often well to take up these arguments at the very beginning of one's speech; this, of course, only if they can be refuted. Ordinarily, however, the place for refutation is at the place in the speaker's own speech, where the corresponding constructive argument is taken up. Occasionally, refutation of an opponent's argument may be delayed until just before the conclusion, and this is sometimes a good practice because the

constructive material that has already been presented throws light on the refutation. *Always, the conclusion should be constructive, and should not deal with refutation.*

How to Outline an Argument

It has been said many times in this course that everything in the speech should support the main assertion that is being made. This is also true of argument, and teachers of speaking have evolved a set form to help the student in keeping his argument sound and clear. The following is an example:

The small college does not offer better opportunity for individual development than does the large college, for

A. The small college does not offer more vital stimulation to the student, *for*

1. The student of the small college does not receive a more stirring incitement from his instructors, *for*

(*a*) The enrollment of a college does not determine the closeness of rerelation between student and teacher, *for*

(1) Dean Henry Parks Wright of Yale states that the relation between Faculty and students depends mainly on

the spirit of the man who teaches and the attitude of individual students toward the Faculty

2. Statistics show that there are no less students per instructor in a small than in a large college, *for*

Large
- (*a*) Columbia has 6.5 students per instructor
- (*b*) Harvard has 6.3 students per instructor
- (*c*) Yale has 5 students per instructor

Small
- (*d*) Amherst has 9.1 students per instructor
- (*e*) Cornell College has 15 students per instructor
- (*f*) Pomona has 12.5 students per instructor

B. He does not meet with the highest grade of teachers, *for*

1. The small college cannot compete with the large college in securing the highest grade of teacher, *for*
   (*a*) It usually has not the means with which to pay the high salary required

2. The small college cannot compete with the large college in employing younger men, even at a higher salary, *for*
   (*a*) The young men see that there is always opportunity to advance in a large college

C. The fact that in a small college, the student does his work under men having the rank of professor, means little, *for*
   1. William Rainey Harper, president of the University of Chicago, pointed out that oftentimes the *instructors* of a large college, were they in a small college, would enjoy the rank of professor.

The thing to notice in this form is that each proposition is supported by reasons, and that these reasons ultimately rest upon facts, which depend either upon the knowledge of the audience or authority for their weight. The student should particularly notice the use of *for* in this outline. The use of this word insures that the reason given after *for* really supports the one given before it.

ASSIGNMENTS

1. Prepare one sound and original inductive argument.
2. Prepare one sound and original argument from analogy.

3. Prepare one sound and original deductive argument.
4. Prepare one sound and original argument from effect to cause.
5. Prepare one sound and original argument from cause to effect.
6. Prepare one sound and original argument based upon statistics.
7. Prepare one sound and original argument based upon authority.
8. Write out *in proper form* a complete argument to prove some assertion that you have recently heard your friends discuss.
9. Prepare notes based on assignment 8, above, and give the speech to an imaginary audience, first from notes, and afterwards without notes.
10. Criticize one argumentative editorial in a newspaper or argumentative magazine article each day for ten days, applying all the tests set down in this lesson.

DO NOT HURRY! You can well spend several weeks in mastering this last lesson.

AND REMEMBER THIS When you have mastered sound argument, you have mastered one of the most important factors in good speaking.

Part B

EMPHASIS

Emphasis is the special prominence given to one or more words in a sentence. Just as in the word *pro-nun'ci-a'tion* we give more prominence to the syllables *nun* and *a,* so, ordinarily, in the sentence, *I went to Boston,* we give prominence to the words *went* and *Boston.* Emphasis is the same thing in a sentence that accent is in a word.

Different Degrees of Emphasis

There are different degrees of emphasis, just as there are different degrees of accent, but because there are so many more degrees, just as there are many more words in a sentence than syllables in a word, the different degrees are hardly ever named. Generally we simply say that this or that word has the *greatest emphasis,* or the *weakest emphasis,* or *stronger emphasis,* or *weaker emphasis.*

The *means* by which a word is emphasized are varied. Usually a speaker simply makes the word *louder.* However, he may also *raise its pitch,* or *prolong it,* or *give it some*

special quality of voice. The special way in which a word is emphasized must be determined by the speaker. The only essential is that the speaker make the word prominent in *some* way.

Emphasis in Sentences of One Idea

In every sentence there are words that embody the idea of the author, that *show forth* his meaning, more than the others. Some are exceedingly important, others are less essential, and finally, some merely show the relation between the others, or connect them. Naturally the public speaker wishes to make the important words especially clear, he wishes to *show them forth;* that is, *emphasize* them, for in reality our word "emphasize" is from the Greek word meaning *to show forth,* or *indicate.* This fact gives rise to the first law of emphasis, which is as follows:

The First Law of Emphasis: Words in a sentence should be emphasized in proportion as they are essential to the meaning. Examples:

College students are MEN OF PRIVILEGE.

They *intend* to *exercise* a PURIFYING INFLUENCE in the *world.*

Men of thought should OPPOSE *bad influences.*

EXERCISE!

In the following sentences underscore the words that are most important to the meaning:

The South is enamored of her work. Her soul is stirred with the breath of a new life. The light of a grander day is falling on her face. She is thrilling with the consciousness of growing power.

Emphasis in Paragraphs, or in Sentences of More than One Idea

If all sentences had only one idea, and always occurred alone, the only law of emphasis needed would be the one just given. More often, however, sentences have more than one idea in them, and they generally do not stand alone, but are grouped in paragraphs. Thus, just as accent often changes when words are brought into sentences, so emphasis changes when more than one idea is expressed in a sentence, or when sentences are brought into paragraphs. This gives rise to the second law of emphasis, which is as follows:

Second Law of Emphasis: When a sentence contains more than one idea, or when sentences of one idea occur in groups, the words which bring out the new ideas as they come along should be emphasized.

Examples:

Let us *proclaim* it *firmly,* proclaim it even in *fall* and in *defeat, this age* is the *grandest* of *all* ages; and do you know *wherefore? Because* it is the *most benignant.* This age *enfranchises* the *slave* in *America, extinguishes* in *Europe* the last *brands* of the *stake, civilizes Turkey, penetrates* the *Koran* with the *Gospel, dignifies woman,* and *subordinates* the *right* of the *strongest* to the *right* of the *most just.*

With *how much pride,* with what a *thrill,* with what *tender* and *loyal reverence,* may we not *cherish* the *spot* where this *marvelous enterprise began,* the *roof* under which the *first councils* were *held,* where the *air* still *trembles* and *burns* with *Otis* and *Sam Adams.* Except the *Holy City,* is there any more *memorable* or *sacred place* on the *face* of the *earth* than the *cradle* of *such a change?* ATHENS has her ACROPOLIS, but the *Greek* can point to *no such results.* LONDON has her PALACE, and her TOWER, and her ST. STEPHEN'S CHAPEL, but the *human race* owes her *no such memories.* FRANCE has SPOTS marked by the SUBLIMEST DEVOTION, but the *Mecca* of the *man who believes and hopes for the human race is not* to *Paris;* it is to the SEABOARD CITIES of the GREAT REPUBLIC.—*Wendell Phillips.*

NOTE: In the above example, starting with the word *Athens,* the new ideas are in small capitals, and the ideas already brought out are in italics. To be sure, the emphasis here given may be called emphasis of contrast (taken up in this lesson), but it also shows the stronger emphasis which new ideas take and the weaker emphasis which is given to ideas already brought out.

EXERCISE!

In the following selections, underscore the new ideas twice, and the ideas already brought out, once.

Nothing is so natural as trade with one's neighbors; the Philippines make us the nearest neighbors of all the East. Nothing is more natural than to trade with those you know. The Philippines bring us permanently face to face with the most-sought-for customers of the world.

I do not believe that this nation was raised up for nothing. I have faith that it has a great mission in the world,—a mission of good, a mission of freedom. I believe that it can live up to that mission; therefore I want to see it step forward boldly and take its place at the head of the nations.

Sometimes one idea is contrasted or compared with another, either in the same sentence, or in sentences close together, or even in sentences quite far apart. This situation requires a third law of emphasis, which is as follows:

Third Law of Emphasis.—When one idea is contrasted or compared with another, the words which bring out the contrasted ideas should be emphasized.

This law covers several cases:

First. Contrast where each side of the contrast has one idea.

Examples:

NOTE: The first two of these examples also shows contrast in the same sentence, the third contrast in sentences close together, and the fourth contrast in sentences far apart.

I know of no way of judging the *future,* but by the *past.*

Men should *be* what they *seem.*

There is no geography in *American manhood.* There are no sections in *American fraternity.* The *South* claims *Lincoln,* the immortal, for its own. The *North* has *no right* to reject *Stonewall Jackson,* the one typical Puritan soldier of the war, for *its* own. Nor *will* it!

Turning to the *Cyclopædia of American Biography,* I find that Webster had all the vices that are supposed to have signalized the Cavalier, and Calhoun all the virtues that are claimed for the Puritan. During twenty years three statesmen of Puritan origin were chosen party leaders of Cavalier Mississippi: Robert J. Walker, born and reared in Pennsylvania; John A. Quitman, born and reared in New York; and Sargent S. Prentiss, born and reared in the good old state of Maine. That sturdy Puritan, John Slidell, never saw Louisiana until he was old enough to vote and to fight; native here,—an alumnus of Columbia College,—but sprung from New England ancestors. Albert Sidney Johnston, the most resplendent of modern Cavaliers,—from tip to toe a type of the species, the very rose and expectancy of the young Confederacy,—did not have a drop of Southern blood in his veins; Yankee on both sides of the house, though born in Kentucky

a little after his father and mother arrived there from Connecticut. The ambassador who serves our government near the French Republic was a gallant Confederate soldier and is a representative Southern statesman; but he owns the estate in Massachusetts where his father was born, and where his father's fathers lived through many generations.

And the Cavaliers, who missed their stirrups, somehow, and got into Yankee saddles? The woods were full of them. If Custer was not a Cavalier, Rupert was a Puritan. And Sherwood, and Wadsworth, and Kearny, and McPherson, and their dashing companions and followers! The one typical Puritan soldier of the war,—mark you,—was a Southern, and not a Northern, soldier: Stonewall Jackson, of the Virginia line. And, if we should care to pursue the subject further back, what about Ethan Allen and John Stark and Mad Anthony Wayne, Cavaliers each and every one! Indeed, from Israel Putnam to Buffalo Bill, it seems to me the Puritans have had rather the best of it in turning out Cavaliers. So the least said about the Puritan and the Cavalier,—except as blessed memories or horrid examples,—the better for historic accuracy.—*Henry Watterson.*

Second.—Contrast where each side of the contrast has two ideas.

My *fruit* is better than *gold,* yea, than fine gold; and my *revenue* than choice *silver.*—Proverbs viii, 19.

Better is a *dry morsel* and *quietness* therewith, than a *house full of sacrifices* with *strife.*—Proverbs xvii, 1.

Third.—Contrast where each side of the contrast has three ideas.

The *darkness of night* shall not *cover* thy *treason,* —the *walls of privacy* shall not *stifle* its *voice.*

You shall soon be made aware that *I* am even more active in *providing* for the *preservation* of the state, than *you* in *plotting* its *destruction.*

In any of the cases of contrast, one side of the contrast may be implied, that is, it may be taken for granted without being expressed.

Contrast with one idea:

This is a *free* country. (Implying that there are other countries which are *not* free.)

Contrast with two ideas:

Today the Union stands *not defended* by armed force or frowning fortress. (Implying that in the *past* the Union *has* been defended by armed force, etc.)

Contrast with three ideas:

Rest in peace, great Columbus of the heavens,—like him, scorned, persecuted, broken-hearted!—in *other* ages, in *distant* hemispheres, when the *votaries of science,* with solemn acts of consecration, shall dedicate their stately edifices to the cause of knowledge and truth, thy name shall be mentioned with honor. (Implying that in *that* age, and *that hemisphere,* the *votaries of religion* did not honor his name.)

In addition to the cases of emphasis already mentioned, there is still another. Oftentimes a speaker utters a series of ideas,—or he may repeat the same idea several times,—getting more and more earnest toward the end. This is called climax and gives rise to the fourth law of emphasis:

FOURTH LAW OF EMPHASIS.—When a speaker utters a series of ideas, or when he repeats the same idea several times, and there is an increasing earnestness toward the end, the important words of each succeeding increase in earnestness should have a corresponding increase of emphasis.

Examples:

Let *Heaven* and *men* and DEVILS, let them *all, all, all,* cry shame against me, yet I'll speak.

I *came,* I *saw,* I CONQUERED.

You think me a fanatic, for you read history not with your eyes, but with your prejudices. But fifty years hence, when Truth gets a hearing, the Muse of history will put *Phocion* for the *Greek, Brutus* for the *Roman, Hampden* for *England, Fayette* for *France,* choose WASHINGTON as the bright consummate flower of OUR earlier civilization, then, dipping her pen in the sunlight, will write in the clear blue, ABOVE THEM ALL, the name of the SOLDIER, the STATESMAN, the MARTYR, TOUSSAINT L'OUVERTURE.—*Wendell Phillips.*

NOTE: In this last example the closing words need not be given louder than the others. Em-

phasis may consist in lowering the voice. We simply need *to give them more prominence* in *some* way.

The expert use of emphasis calls for a complete mastery of vocal technique on the part of a speaker. He must first of all have excellent breath control, in order that he may give each word just the correct amount of force. He must be master of inflection—the steps and slides of the voice—in order that he may elevate or depress a word in the path of the speech melody to just the degree he desires, and may turn or twist the rise or fall of inflection to just the right degree. He must have many vocal qualities at his command, for often the greatest emphasis is given by the application of some subtle change in voice quality. Moreover, he must be master of the time element in delivery in order that by lengthening or shortening a word, or by lengthening or shortening a pause before or after it he may make it prominent.

The only true path to mastery of emphasis s that which leads through *clear thinking* and *strong feeling.*

EXERCISE!

Write out one original example to illustrate each kind of emphasis treated in this lesson, underscoring the proper words.

Effective Speech

LESSON XII

LESSON XII

Part A

HOW TO MAKE A MEMORIAL SPEECH
HOW TO UTTER "A FEW SENTIMENTS OF PERSONAL TRIBUTE"
HOW TO MAKE A SPEECH PROMOTING YOUR OWN BUSINESS

Does your Lodge hold annual Memorial Services?

Are you the friend of some prominent citizen?

Are you active in some Service Club?

THEN, *you* may be called upon at any time to give a memorial speech for one who has passed to the great beyond.

Such a task is a delicate one, but it can be performed with grace if you carefully study the outline and speeches given in this lesson.

Here is Some General Advice

The memorial speech has as its function the mourning and the praising of the deceased. Its tone is one of sorrow for the death of loved ones, yet also of joy for the good lives that they led. If the speech can take on an atmosphere of religious faith, it is often more acceptable, but the influence of

a life is never lost and always immortality is suggested.

Not all the headings set down in the *Suggestive Outline* are always treated. Often, as in the case of Gifford Pinchot's speech on Roosevelt, the whole speech is devoted to an analysis of the character of the deceased. Sometimes, as in the case of Mr. Garland's speech on John Henry Patterson, the bulk of what is said is given over to an enumeration of good deeds. What is done, depends largely upon the characteristics of the deceased, and the type of mind of the one giving the eulogy. Nearly always there is a succinct summary at the end and a statement of the lessons to be gleaned from the occasion. Beauty of language and imagery will add greatly to the impressiveness of a memorial speech.

Here is an outline that will aid you in preparing this last service for your friend or fellow-worker:

SUGGESTIVE OUTLINE FOR THE MEMORIAL SPEECH

1. Formally state the purpose of the occasion
   - (*a*) To mourn and praise the deceased
     - (1) Name or names of deceased
     - (2) Name of organization
     - (3) Date of death
     - (4) Circumstances of death

2. Analyze the character of the deceased
   (*a*) His intellect
   (*b*) His emotions
   (*c*) His motives
3. Enumerate the good deeds of the deceased
   (*a*) In business
   (*b*) In civic affairs
   (*c*) In the family circle
   (*d*) In religion
4. Summarize the characteristic involved and point the lesson to be gleaned from it.
   (*a*) We should not wait till our friends are gone to value them
   (*b*) Such a life is immortal

IN MEMORY OF THEODORE ROOSEVELT

By Gifford Pinchot, Former Governor of Pennsylvania

(Speech delivered at the Metropolitan Opera House, Philadelphia, on the occasion of a memorial service in honor of Theodore Roosevelt.)

We who loved Roosevelt have not lost him. The qualities we treasured in him, his loyalty, his genial kindness, his unwearied thoughtfulness for others, the generosity which made him prefer his friends in honor to himself, his tenderness with children, his quick delight in living, and the firm soundness of his life's foundations, are potent with us yet.

The broad human sympathy which bound to him the millions who never saw his face, his clean courage and self-forgetful devotion to his country, the tremendous sanity of his grasp on the problems of the nation and the world, and the superb simplicity and directness of his life and thought still live as the inspiration and the basis for the new and better world which is to come.

The people loved Roosevelt because he was like them. In him the common qualities were lifted to a higher tension and a greater power, but they were still the same. What he did plain men understood and would have liked to do. The people loved him because his thoughts, though loftier, were yet within their reach, and his motives were always clear in their sight. They knew his purposes were always right. To millions he was the image of their better selves.

Roosevelt was the greatest preacher of righteousness in modern times. Deeply religious beneath the surface, he made right living seem the natural thing, and there was no man beyond the reach of his preaching and example. In the sight of all men, he lived the things he taught, and millions followed him because he was the clear example of his teaching.

Unless we may except his conservation policies, Roosevelt's greatest service during his presidency was the inspiration he gave young men. To them he was the leader in all they hoped to be and do for the common good. The generation which was entering manhood while he was President will carry with it to the grave the impress of his leadership and personality.

To the boys of America he was all they hoped to be—a hunter, a rider, a sportsman, eager for the tang of danger, keen and confident, and utterly unafraid. There was no part of his example but was good for boys to follow. Roosevelt, half boy till his life's end, yet the manliest of men, of a fineness his best friends best understood, was their ideal, and will not cease to be because he has passed on.

To him the unforgivable sin, and there was but one, was betrayal of the interests of his country. The man who sinned that sin he neither forgave nor forgot. For opposition to himself he cared little; enemies he had in plenty, but they cast no shadow on his soul. He was a gallant and a cheerful fighter, willing, as he often said, to be beaten for any cause that was worth fighting for, and whether in defeat or victory, never unbalanced and never dismayed.

Roosevelt lived intensely in his family life. The doer of great things himself, and the occasion of great accomplishment in others, what he did was not done alone. It is but right that we should recognize the part played by the strong and gentle, wise and loving woman, whose hand was so rarely seen, yet still more rarely absent, in all that was best in her great husband's finest living and most memorable achievements.

The greatest of executives, he informed the machinery of government with the flame of his own spirit. He was his own hardest taskmaster, and always unwilling to ask of any man the thing he was not ready to do himself. He was our leader because he was the better man. He worked more hours, at higher speed, with wider vision. He trusted us, and gave each man his head. Always eager to recognize good work and give due credit for it, always ready with an excuse for the man who honestly tried and failed, he had nothing but scorn and contempt for the man who never tried at all.

Filled with the joy and the spice of living, afraid neither of life nor of death, thankful for sunshine or rain, never sorry for himself, never asking odds of any man or any situation, he used the powers he had as

only his great soul could use them—powers seldom, if ever, before assembled in one individual, but nearly all of them duplicated, one here, one there, within the knowledge of us all. It was the use his soul made of his body and his mind that was the essence of his greatness.

The greatest of his victories was his last, his victory over the indifference of a people long misled. He was the first to see the need for it. To gain it he seemed to throw away his future. In the event he won results and earned a name which will live while the knowledge of America's part in the Great War still endures.

He was the leader of the people because his courage and his soundness made him so. More than any man of his time, he was loved by those who ought to love him, and hated by those who ought to hate him. His ideals, his purposes, his points of view, his hostilities, and his enthusiasms were such as every man could entertain and understand. It was only in the application of them that he rose to heights beyond the reach of all the rest of us.

What explains his power? Life is the answer. Life at its warmest and fullest and freest, at its utmost vigor, at its sanest in purpose and restraint, at its cleanest and clearest

—life tremendous in volume, unbounded in scope, yet controlled and guided with a disciplined power which made him, as few men have ever been, the captain of his soul.

Alert, glad, without meanness and without fear, free from arrogance and affectation, with few hesitations and few regrets, slow to promise but ardent to perform, delighting in difficulties, welcoming danger, sensitive to the touch of every phase of human existence, yet dominated by standards more severely set for himself than for any others, sustained by a breadth of knowledge and of sympathy, and by an endurance, both physical and mental, which belonged to him alone, Roosevelt lived with a completeness that lesser men can never know.

In Roosevelt, above all the men of his time, the promise of the Master was fulfilled: "I came that ye might have life, and that ye might have it more abundantly."

IN MEMORY OF JOHN HENRY PATTERSON

(President of the National Cash Register Company of Dayton, Ohio)

By D. F. Garland

(Speech delivered in the National Cash Register Schoolhouse, Dayton, Ohio, upon the occasion of a

memorial service in honor of John Henry Patterson, President of the National Cash Register Company.)

Just one year ago on a beautiful Sunday afternoon, our inspiring leader, Mr. Patterson, was taken from us. We are yet too close to that event to get proper perspective with which to rightly estimate his worth to our community and the world. But of one thing we are certain: that he was the best friend the children of Dayton ever had. I want to interpret this feature of his life today as we together revere his memory.

John Ruskin, in his essay on "The Roots of Honor," said there are five great professions which minister to the daily necessities of life in every civilized nation. There is the soldier's profession to defend it, the minister's profession to teach it, the physician's profession to keep it in health, the lawyer's profession to enforce justice in it, the business man's profession to provide for it. And the duty of all these professions is on due occasion to die for it. The soldier will rather die than leave his post in battle; the physician, than leave his post in time of plague; the minister, rather than teach falsehood; the lawyer, rather than countenance injustice.

But the business man—what is his due occasion of death? John Ruskin was unable to answer the question. In his day and until the closing years of the last century, business was looked upon as the unregenerate section of the social order. It was believed to be governed by the law of "tooth and nail," and "He gets who can." It had no sense of public obligation to service in the interests of the community. The business man did not "die for the nation" as a business man.

We are now living in a new era when Ruskin's query can be answered. The business man has now found his due occasion of death. The present and the future of civilization depends on the service and disinterested statesmanship of the leaders of industry. The future progress of the world, we now realize depends more on how business is conducted than on how politics is managed.

Thirty years ago, Mr. Patterson answered John Ruskin's question—what is the due occasion of death for the business man. He introduced into his industry in Dayton, what is now known throughout our land as welfare work. He will go down in history as the pioneer in industrial welfare work in America. He believed that the business man had as much obligation to the community, to

the State, and to the world as the soldier, the minister, the physician, and the lawyer. He believed that the business man could find his due occasion of death each day in discharging his personal obligations to promote the welfare of mankind.

However, Mr. Patterson understood human nature. He realized that as the twig is bent the tree inclines; that you could do little with the adult portion of the community in changing its fixed ideals and habits of life. Therefore, he took the long look ahead, and centered his influence, his leadership, and his marvelous teaching ability upon the children of his time. He had learned the lesson so ably taught by the Galilean Master, who one day set a child in the midst of a great company and said, "of such is the Kingdom of God." "And whosoever shall offend one of these little ones it were better for him that a millstone were hanged about his neck and he were drowned in the depth of the sea." I think it is safe to say that no man who has ever lived in our community contributed as much to the present and future well-being of children as John H. Patterson, in whose memory we are gathered today. The time will not permit me to recount all that he did, but I wish briefly to state some of the out-

standing services which he rendered to the children:

1. He established the first boys' garden in the world, where boys were taught the value of work, the value of money, the sources of wealth, and the principles which develop character.

2. It was at his suggestion and under his direction and with his financial aid that the Patterson School established the first school garden of America. Today there are thousands and tens and hundreds of thousands of children planting seed and cultivating the soil in these United States. He did this when no one else thought of it, and in the face of criticism and ridicule.

3. It was at his suggestion and with the use of money secured through the Welfare Department of The National Cash Register Company, that the first cooking center in any public school in Dayton was equipped in the Patterson School. Mr. Patterson financed this school himself. This experiment resulted in the introduction of domestic science into one school after another in Dayton until now all the children of our schools have an opportunity to learn the principles of domestic science.

4. The children's friend was also fairy

godfather to the little group of children years ago who were trained by Mr. Yahreis in orchestral music. We have today on our stage a few of the children's orchestras. This is a result of his far-sighted thoughtfulness and generosity.

5. Mr. Patterson was also responsible for the introduction of the first public school kindergarten in Dayton through the gift of a complete kindergarten equipment. From this kindergarten others sprang up until now every school has its kindergarten.

6. Mr. Patterson planned and financed the first playground and garden association in Dayton. It was through him that this splendid service which the children of Dayton now enjoy, was established in Dayton nearly a quarter of a century ago.

7. Time will not permit me to tell the story of how Mr. Patterson thought and planned and organized and battled at great odds, against opposition, to secure better city government, better public health protection, and a better system of education for Dayton in the interests of growing childhood. He realized that the children would have no chance in the future if the government was corrupt, if the educational system was inadequate, if protection against disease was not given.

8. The first community center for adults and children he established near the factory, and from this have come more than a score of community centers and improvement associations in Dayton.

As a result, the baby of today has an infinitely better opportunity to live, through his fine public service, and the child a better opportunity to grow, to play, to study, to work, and to win success than would have been possible had Mr. Patterson not proved himself the untiring friend of the children of Dayton.

In the end, the honors go to him who unselfishly serves his generation. The crown of a selfish ambition crumbles and work done for self-glory perishes and is forgotten.

Mr. Patterson served his generation unselfishly and helped make the childhood of his time and all future time wiser, happier, and better, and so today, on this first anniversary of his death, we crown his memory with a wreath of blossoms immortal.

He dreamed of a model city full of healthy, happy children. He laid the foundations deep and strong for the fulfillment of his dream. And then he was translated into the perfect city of God, that city described by the prophet as a city coming down out of

heaven, into which no darkness, nor want, nor sorrow, nor death could ever come, but only joy and knowledge, and the fullness of life.

Our obligation is to complete the work he left so well begun, but yet unfinished and make our city something like the dream city of Revelation. He is not dead. He lives. His spirit, his inspiration to worthy deeds, the fruitage of his great labor abide. These cannot perish. The mere toiler dies. The dreamer lives forever.

IN MEMORY OF GEORGE LEE BURTON

(Member of the Lions Club of Louisville, Kentucky)

By Oscar O. Miller

(Speech delivered at a luncheon of the Lions Club of Louisville, Kentucky, in memory of George Lee Burton, a member of the club.)

We come to mourn a friend; to cast up the account and take an inventory of our loss. Too often we wait for the translation of our friends before we are able to justly evaluate their sterling qualities. They go along life's way with us; we sense their presence, and are soothed with their companionship; but how rarely we cast a searching analytical gaze

in their direction in an endeavor to divine those hidden excellences which give us pleasure!

A man parched with thirst is relieved with nature's drink, but the benefits from the draught are not enhanced by the knowledge that this necessity has a chemical formula, H_2O, or that it is composed of gases and that it is capable of being resolved into its respective atoms. A person with a philosophical turn of mind, however, can derive pleasure from contemplating this universal necessity in the abstract.

So it is with our friends; they do us good by their presence without our knowing what virtue is operating on us. Our main difficulty is that we are never able to get far enough away from our friend's influence to get the proper perspective,—" 'tis distance lends enchantment to the view." We are dwarfed in his presence; and never catch the full view. We are looking at his feet of clay when we ought to have our gaze on his god-like head. Thus we follow the bent of our frail human natures and never value a possession half so much as when it is irretrievably lost.

I suppose character, that hidden latent force, is the chief attribute of our friends that charms and acts upon us. "It is," says

Emerson, "a reserve force which acts directly by presence and without means, by whose impulses the man is guided, but whose counsels he cannot impart." We think of it as the moral attributes of the individual, or the sum of all his qualities, and the principles that control his life; in other words, "that which he really is." And after all is not this the true basis of our evaluation?

A man's work will be tested with fire and may perish, but he, himself, may be saved, if he has character of a given quality. Character has no ebbs and flows, no tides, but is an undiminished quality and quantity that emanates from us. Our characteristics, or the component elements of our character, are born with us and these are fused in the crucible of life; they are acted on by environment, education, religion until they may be modified but never changed. "Whatsoever a man soweth, that shall he also reap" we may well accept as an axiom, but do not his friends in a measure reap with him? Do not good deeds act upon us and perpetuate themselves to infinity?

We reveal our characters in our faces as much as in our conduct. Hazlitt, quoting Lord Chesterfield, advises us that "if we wish to know the real sentiments of the person we

are conversing with, we should look into his face, for he can more easily command his words than his features." Life is ever molding our expression; our inner thoughts are written indelibly in our faces.

And so in the loss of our esteemed and mutual friend and co-worker, George Lee Burton, we pause in our grief and endeavor to estimate our loss and pay a tribute to his memory. A picture painted of our fellow and handed to posterity would call forth the opinion that it is the counterpart of a good man, for the face is the index of the soul. Those who are given by nature the faculty of analyzing features would say it is the face of an idealist. Whatsoever is good, whatsoever is pure, whatsoever is noble, whatsoever is for civic betterment and the amelioration of human suffering would find our friend identified with it and laboring for it. He was a lover of his fellowman and his greatest joy was in doing good to others. Naturally he was a student of human nature and he had that faculty to find "books in the running brooks, sermons in stones, and good in everything." He was inquisitive by nature in the noblest sense of the word, and he was always searching his friends for hidden good and deeper virtues than appeared on the sur-

face. With astute questions he would lead his friends to give expression to their inmost thoughts; and would scrutinize them for reactions to his own. He delighted to contribute to the beggars in the street: primarily to relieve their necessities, and then, to afford him an opportunity to take a kindly interest in them and interrogate them on any subject that might be of mutual interest. He reminded me of a pearl diver, always searching the depths of human nature for the treasures that he knew lay there. First, then, he was good, and then he was cheerful. Perhaps cheerfulness is a natural corollary to goodness. He certainly gave one the impression of having sunlight in his soul. You felt better for having casually met him on the street.

Somewhere he had tapped that inexhaustible supply, of which if a man drinketh, "he shall never thirst" again. Where he tapped it we know, when, it matters not; but it must have been early in life, for the accumulated effect showed in his face, his actions, and his life. We have but to glance at the dome-like head to know that the man was intellectual; the full eye, that he had a command of language; the brow, that he was credulous, that scoundrels might take him in, but this would never shake his faith in human nature and

he would continue to believe that there was "good in the worst of us."

Friendships! Who does not reverence them? Are they not the best part of life? "The moment we indulge our affections," says Emerson, "the earth is metamorphosed, there is no winter, and no night; all tragedies, all ennuis vanish, all duties, even; nothing fills the preceding eternity but the forms, all radiant, of beloved persons. Let the soul be assured that somewhere in the universe it should rejoin its friend, and it would be content and cheerful, alone, for a thousand years."

And so we feel that our friend by his life has achieved an abundant entrance into that immortality, and that he has found kindred souls that will vibrate in harmony with his own.

IN MEMORY OF DECEASED BROTHERS OF THE ORDER OF KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS

By Frank A. Picard

(Speech delivered at the Memorial Exercises of the Detroit Council, Knights of Columbus, Detroit, Michigan.)

We are assembled here this morning in honor of our departed brothers.

I have been requested to deliver what is often referred to as the "eulogy." In one manner of viewing it, this is a sad duty; on the other hand, a privilege. It is the latter, in that it permits me to sing the "Gloria" to their "Credo." I have the opportunity of pronouncing the "Hosanna" to the faith of those who from this Council of Catholic men have crossed the River Jordan and now wait for us on the other side. To their characters, to their services to God and country, we meet in memoriam.

But shall there be an atmosphere of sorrow and gloom? Shall there be sackcloth and ashes, despair and misery, as we *gather* to honor these brothers? Shall we bemoan their fate, now, when the mysteries of the journey they have taken are still unknown to us? For the poet has written:

"Not one returns to tell us of the road which to discover we must travel, too."

Shall there be sadness? That, brother Knights, is not my conception, neither of what they themselves desire nor of the true theory of eternity which we profess to understand.

The great composer, Liszt, has given us an interpretation of life through the medium

of the beautiful poem "Les Préludes." Aided by those appealing and emotion-stirring instruments found in a symphony orchestra, its author depicts more realistically than the painter can with his brush, or the novelist may with similes and metaphors, that life, life with all its joys and its sorrows, its victories and its defeats, its successes and its failures, its loves and its hates, its laughs and its tears,—life after all is only the overture. It is the prelude—the stage and the drama, "where each of us must play his part," lie yet before us.

Brother Knights, we gather here, in memoriam of the dead. Yes, but not entirely in sorrow, because we know that, true Knights that they were, their part in that overture was nobly played.

It has been said, however, that we do not meet to praise the dead. That this month of November, the month of remembrance, is a time for supplication and prayer for those souls, who, still among the great majority, must tarry an indefinite period before Abraham stands ready to take them to his bosom.

I cannot agree with this position in its entirety. Those brothers died members of our great Catholic Order. Whether theirs was the faith from birth or from choice of seeing

the light; whether they wandered from the fold during a storm on the hillside and returned to the blessings of forgiveness, or whether they remained ever constant, is of small moment.

They died in the faith. They weathered the gale during their cycle on earth and to them the tribulations and trials of their religion that are promised as a cross, was in comparison doubtless as heavy a burden as comes to the cause which they espoused.

These men died in the faith. While others found the road too long and too rocky; while others through greed, perhaps, or passion or desire for financial success, or for political achievement, or for social popularity, fell over the precipice and couldn't climb back; while others in the search of further enlightenment were led astray to false shrines and temples, these men died in the faith.

Who is there among you will say we do not laud such noble dead? Who is there but will join with me in praise of them for the example they have set and in thanksgiving to the Creator for His beneficence? Their courage, their fortitude, their faith, their souls did not die. These lived and will continue to live in our memory as an incentive and

inspiration for us and our guidance. From the great beyond there still reaches into the rooms of this very building an intangible something that tells each of us those men still live and are waiting.

What better evidence can you, Brother Knights, desire of the hereafter? What unseen power moved and controlled your body to assist in this service? What directed your brains into thoughts of departed ones? Did the influence of those men pass with their bodies? Why, if the grave is the end, we would not be here! No, my friends, life is the overture. It is the gleam between the two eternities—the past and the future.

Individually you may mourn the loss of a brother or a friend, but time, you know, heals. The tangible body itself robbed of the spirit whose formula is known to the Creator alone, rapidly returns to the state of its making. Ears that caught the sound of your voice no longer serve. "Between those sentinels of bone the tongue was placed." It was still there when death entered, but it can no longer respond as you had so often heard it respond before. Those two guards at the gateway of the brain, those eyes once so loving and kind, are closed in death and see you not. Gone is the spark of life. Gone

is the heartbeat. Gone is the spirit—the soul.

But the soul, my friends, never dies. Can you and I find any comfort in the theory of the atheist who leaves your loved one in the bowels of the earth, or that of the agnostic who has the desire but not the courage to disbelieve? Shall we find comfort in these or in our own knowledge of the rewards of the hereafter? Brother Knights, as far as I know, I was not personally acquainted with any of these brothers who have passed away. My reaction to this memorial service, therefore, is entirely in the abstract. On the other hand, yours in most instances is entirely in the concrete. Where to me a noble crusader has bowed to the Grim Reaper—to you, a father or a brother or a son is vividly remembered by an empty chair at the family table. Where to me, a brother of this Order has answered his last roll call, to you the handshake and greeting of a dear friend is missed in the Council chamber. Where to me a modern knight of old no longer lives to preach and spread the truth by word of mouth and example, to you an ever-ready disciple and angel of charity has been stricken down from the ranks which were already too thin in numbers.

Doubtless when the individual names of these men are called there passes before your mind with lightning rapidity some mannerism you loved, some trait by which each was most familiar. You see his face as though it were yesterday. You hear the ring of his voice; you notice the swing of his gait as he heads for the cloakroom. His greetings to Brother Knights and to yourself are startling in their trueness to life. You even watch him take his familiar place in the lobby, the library, and then in the Council chamber. If he was full of life and humor you hear his hearty laugh. If he was serious and at times appeared to be sour with life in general, you smile to yourself. Back of that forbidding exterior was a twinkling eye, under that coat beat a heart of gold.

Back to you, my friends, come memories today of these men and to you those memories are individual. They mark your relationship with him and I warrant they are pleasant memories now. You may have had your differences. You may even see the flush of his face when some instance of misunderstanding recalls itself to your attention. But you remember with shame for yourself, not for him. He is right today.

"For who could war with dumb unconscious clay?"

Friends, these brothers have crossed the Great Divide. The manner or time of their going was immaterial. Whether they had reached life's allotted space of three score and ten or whether they had just blossomed into all-conquering manhood, their reward is fixed by the measure of their opportunities. Some doubtless had reached the goal of success and were content with the financial side of life's accomplishment; others were struggling on the verge of success, while others stood at life's threshold. It matters not now that they all wanted to live, for it pleased Him in the Divine scheme of the universe to gather them unto Himself. We mourn them today; we praise them; we see only their virtues and we pray for them.

But as we see and remember all of these things one thought must present itself to our minds. There must be somewhere in each of us, I am certain, some remorse that it was necessary for their overture to be entirely played before we realized the sweetness of life's music. Many times we might have applauded and we did not. Many times we might have encouraged—and we did not. Many times we might have praised them—

and we did not. Yet, they were our brothers and we thought we loved them.

Sir Knights, a memorial service like this fails in its purpose if it does not bring home to us most forcibly the thought that the charity, unity and brotherly love which form the corner stone upon which this edifice of Columbianism is builded, should be manifested here in life—and not reserved entirely for ears that cannot hear, for eyes that cannot see, or for tongues that cannot answer. If those who have gone could send you a message I am certain they would use the words of Belle E. Smith, expressed in the last stanza of her poem, "If I Should Die Tonight."

"Oh, friends, I pray tonight,
Keep not your kisses for my dead, cold brow.
The way is lonely; let me feel them now;
Think gently of me; I am travel-worn;
My faltering feet are pierced with many a thorn.
Forgive, oh, hearts estranged, forgive I plead!
When dreamless rest is mine I shall not need
The tenderness for which I long tonight."

HOW TO UTTER "A FEW SENTIMENTS OF PERSONAL TRIBUTE"

Is there an elderly man in your city whom it would be fitting to honor with a dinner?

Has some one in your community just finished a civic task with credit?

Has some citizen just undertaken a difficult city office?

Has your firm just promoted one of your co-workers?

THEN

You ought to be ready to utter "A Few Sentiments of Personal Tribute" to the man.

LET ME GIVE YOU THE GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF SUCH A SPEECH

Here is the outline that will help you praise your friend or co-worker.

Suggestive Outline for the Speech of Personal Tribute

1. State the personal feeling you have in being called upon to pay this tribute
2. Analyze the worth of the achievements of the person honored
   (*a*) Conditions confronted
   (*b*) Problems solved
   (*c*) Triumphs secured
3. Analyze the character of the person honored
   (*a*) His genius
   (*b*) His humor
   (*c*) His human qualities, etc.

4. Felicitate the person honored upon his accomplishments
5. Express the wish that the person honored may continue in prosperity

The speech of personal tribute is similar to the memorial speech, except that the general mood, instead of being one of sorrow, is one of happiness and rejoicing, for the person for whom tribute is paid is alive and usually present to hear the speech. The compliments paid are of a somewhat more modest sort, being based upon such facts as cannot be controverted. Humor may well find a place in the speech of personal tribute, for it relieves the embarrassment of the guest. A knowledge of human nature should be displayed by the speaker in his analysis of character, and the general outlook should be optimistic. Of course, the speaker should see to it that he is very familiar with the career of the person to whom tribute is paid.

TRIBUTE TO JOHN A. WANAMAKER

By John F. Hylan

Mayor of New York

(Speech delivered at a citizens' luncheon in honor of John Wanamaker, held in Philadelphia, to mark the completion of a sixty year career as merchant.)

I am sure that I shall perform few acts during my term of office as Mayor of the City of New York which are more in harmony with my own feeling than this public acknowledgment of the life and service of your distinguished guest of honor.

My first official utterance as Mayor contained an admonition to the hundred thousand employees of the City of New York to observe the daily life of Philadelphia's and New York's greatest merchant, wherein would be found examples of punctuality and efficiency worthy of the emulation of all in the municipal service. The City of New York is today the metropolis of the world, and many and diverse are the influences which have helped to place it in this commanding position. Its growth, progress, beauty and substantial prosperity are the work of many hearts and hands. As we reflect on the greatness of New York we become aware at once of the great sense of obligation which we owe to the keen-visioned men of business, the conduct of whose establishments has been a model the world over, and whose interest in civic advancement has been no less active.

For the past quarter of a century there has been one business institution in the City of New York which has been remarkable for

its steady and onward progress in the science of mercantile management. The establishment is unique, with specially trained experts in its every phase of activity. But behind all this is the creative genius and master mind of that great merchant—John Wanamaker. The victories of Mr. Wanamaker in the realms of commerce, and the beautiful temples of merchandising which he has erected in our city are more than mere mercantile achievements. They are monuments to the possibility of accomplishment within the compass of every man with brains, courage and character.

To New Yorkers, the name of John Wanamaker is synonymous with character and kindness. It is a character noted for its simple, plain, unaffected honesty. It is this rugged honesty which has gripped the hearts of all who know him. The sincerity and truthfulness of the man permeate his handiwork, and the great institutions he has reared breathe the spirit of their founder. (Applause.)

The kindness of Mr. Wanamaker is the good, old-fashioned benevolence which finds constant happiness in dropping the word of appreciation, the thoughtful note of encouragement and the expression of confidence to

those about him. The magical results of this sympathetic interest are in a measure reflected in the present ever-expanding mercantile enterprises which had their inception in little Oak Hall in the Spring of '61. (Applause.)

We felicitate Mr. Wanamaker on the prizes he has garnered in the marts of commerce by industry, prudence and honorable dealing. We felicitate him on the high esteem in which he is held among his fellow citizens through a life of upright citizenship, business integrity and practical Christianity. We felicitate him on the happiness and contentment which comes from the love and companionship of a man who has won the respect of the people of the City of New York by his public-spiritedness—a worthy son, a good father—Rodman Wanamaker.

Let us fervently hope that Mr. Wanamaker may live long among us to enjoy the blessings which his life of service to God and mankind so richly merit. (Applause.)

TRIBUTE TO GENERAL GOETHALS

By Andrew Carnegie

(Speech delivered before the Economic Club of New York at the Twenty-seventh Meeting. General Goethals, who had just completed the construction

of the Panama Canal, was the guest of the evening.)[1]

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:— I never suspected that I was to have so great an honor, so carefully given, as to become a follower of the distinguished speaker who has just taken his seat. (Applause.)

At long intervals a man appears who has done something of unique importance in the world. Long has he been in training for the task, and the world knew it not; but now the world can never cease to know that your guest of tonight has proved himself a genius who has changed world conditions. France had undertaken the difficult task of uniting the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans by a passway for ships upon the water. After years of labor the task was abandoned, and the long-cherished scheme seemed destined to fail. At this juncture our Government stepped forward, purchased the reversion, and renewed the seemingly hopeless attempt. Here was the critical moment. Where was there on earth, not *a* man but *the* man to whom this perilous task could safely be trusted? Nothing short of a genius for organization was needed. No man of that order seemed within reach. Geniuses are rare, but the choice fell upon your guest of tonight,

[1] Reprinted from "Modern Eloquence."

and we began to examine his history. He was fortunate here. He was born in Brooklyn, and very fortunate for New York, for we claim partnership in everything good that Brooklyn has. (Applause and laughter.)

Studying the problems before him, our guest soon discovered that none of the conditions of success, as he has stated, had much to do at first with plans of construction. His enemy, sure to conquer him as it had conquered his predecessors, if not vanquished, was unsanitation, and here Providence had placed within his reach the one man of all the world—Brigadier-General Gorgas. (Applause.)

Now, ladies and gentlemen, note this. Genius always attracts genius. (Applause.) Though it cannot be said that those rare birds are so numerous as exactly to flock together. (Laughter.) In my experience I have not found them disposed to do that.

With such men co-operating, each marvelous in his domain, what problem could remain unsolved? Our country has long been remarkable for utilizing officers of the army and the navy in works of peace. I have seen the arduous tasks involved in the Fernandina breakwater, for instance, in the rivers near Pittsburgh, upon the levees of the Missis-

sippi, and the canals upon our Great Lakes, all under control of such army and navy officials. I believe that we are unique in this. I know of no other government that has the sense to use its commanders in the army and navy in work so profitable. (Applause.) This recalls one of Mr. Blaine's stories. I asked him what was one of the most attractive speeches he had ever heard in Congress —and he was there for many years. He could tell a good story himself. "Well," he said, "it was made by the Dutch ex-Governor of Pennsylvania who was subsequently elected to Congress. The debate in Congress was upon a bill which for the first time appropriated money to be used in improving fresh-water ponds. Many members held that Congress had no power under the Constitution to undertake improvement of fresh water. States must attend to this. National appropriations were confined to salt water. The Governor had never spoken a word in the House, and he had been there for two or three years, and the surprise was great when he was seen slowly to rise. The House was hushed into silence in a moment. What on earth was to come next? And then came the speech, short and to the point—'Mr. Speaker, I don't know "nutting" very much about the

Constitution, but I know this: I wouldn't give a cent for a Constitution that didn't wash as well in fresh water as in salt'." (Laughter.)

I said "cent" there. I understand the Governor used the more simplified spelling. The House was convulsed, of course, and the appropriation was unanimously passed. Thus was our Constitution changed, not by law, but by laughter. It is astonishing what a good laugh sometimes can accomplish.

Your guest of the evening, gentlemen, had scores of difficulties to overcome, and many problems to solve, but he always solved them. Like the Governor, he rose to the occasion and swept the board, as the Dutch Governor did. The Governor changed the Constitution. You, guest of the evening, have changed world conditions; not only your country, but the whole world owes you an unpayable debt. (Applause.) Long may you live, Governor-that-is-to-be, and enjoy the world's prosperity. (Applause.)

HOW TO MAKE A SPEECH PROMOTING YOUR OWN BUSINESS

Ambition is praiseworthy.

It is perfectly proper for a man to strive "to get ahead."

That man will "get ahead" who really strives to serve his fellowmen.

If you can at any time offer advice that will help your fellows you will reap a handsome harvest.

SUCH IS THE PHILOSOPHY THAT LIES BACK OF THE BUSINESS PROMOTION SPEECH

BUT

Self must *always* be *kept in the background.*

NOW LISTEN

The business promotion speech—the "booster" speech—is one of the most common speeches of the modern business world. However, it is a speech which requires the very highest sort of diplomacy in its construction. It must really "boost," but it must do this in a superbly indirect manner, keeping well in the background the selfish interests of the speaker. It must offer the sales argument for whatever the speaker has to sell, but must at no time degenerate into a direct sales-talk.

Probably the best method to pursue is to see that the business relations of the speaker are particularly well advertised in connection with the speech, and then to see to it that

these are not mentioned by the speaker himself. Much of the success of the business promotion speech depends on the personality of the speaker. If he can secure the confidence and friendship of the audience, while at the same time offering sound arguments for his cause, he has gone a long way toward adding clients to his list.

A clever wording of the subject is of the utmost importance in connection with the speech of business promotion. Notice that Mr. Moore's subject is "Profits," but that the proposition that he is proving is "You should know your costs," and that the proposition that follows from this, *which is not stated,* is that you should employ Wolf and Company to help find out the costs. Notice that the *ostensible* purpose of the address over KGO by Mr. Fischer is that of expressing pleasure over the opening of KGO broadcasting station, but that the *real* purpose is to advertise Oakland and its advantages. Particularly it will prove profitable to notice the construction of the first sentence of the third paragraph of this speech, by which transition is made from the *ostensible* purpose to the *real* purpose of the speech.

HERE ARE TWO EXCELLENT EXAMPLES,—ONE SHORT, THE OTHER LONGER—OF THE BUSINESS PROMOTION SPEECH

PROFITS

By W. Clement Moore

Head of Business Analysis Department of Wolf and Company, Accountants, Chicago, Philadelphia, New York, and other principal cities

(Speech delivered at an annual convention of the Western Division of the National Paper Box Manufacturers' Association, Hotel Sherman, Chicago.)

Mr. Chairman and Members of the Western Division:—May I state at the very beginning that I believe in sentiment in business; I believe in the Golden Rule, in welfare organizations and in fair and honest business policies—just as all of you do—but I also believe in making money honestly and on a square, competitive basis.

Assuming that we all believe in such principles we can very well forget for a time all other ideals in business and devote our time and discussion to the one ideal that every business man should strive to obtain and that is *an honest profit* on his investment, and for

that matter a fair *margin of profit* on every sale made.

But first let us establish this truth:

"Profits are made by men with minds and methods—not by inanimate machines and products.

"For the best machines and products subjected to improper management, poor judgment or unwise methods will prove but a loadstone and a loss."

Business management has long since passed the stage of "rule-o'-thumb" policies. Successful business no longer comes about in a haphazard way, but results in practically every instance from a well-defined, carefully conceived plan of business organization and development, governed by intelligent executive control.

The other day I found a page torn from quite an old book on business. It contained some rare gems of thought which might very well be the inspiration of the world's most successful men and women of today.

It brought out quite clearly the fact that every kind of progress, social, business, political, spiritual, comes about mainly through analysis, comparison and application. There can be no real progress otherwise.

A thorough understanding of the causes of

all the varying business conditions as they arise: a comparison of the most effective methods of treating such conditions with results of such treatments, and the application of the correct principles at the right time—these are the things which bring about progress and development.

Where comparatives cannot be obtained it is well to know that your efforts will be that of the pioneer and govern your work accordingly. In such instances the unknown lies before you and originality with inventive genius will need to be employed. But even in such an extremity it is well to remember that the underlying principles of every new thing have really always existed. No maxim is so nearly correct as that about there being "nothing exactly new under the sun."

Napoleon could have had an automobile. The principles upon which it is constructed have always existed. If men had known enough to apply those principles then the best type of modern car might have glided down the streets of Paris a century ago. Hot water made steam back in the Carboniferous age. Plato might have had a telephone, Alexander a phonograph, Cleopatra a steam yacht and the speeches of Cicero might have

been printed in a daily paper if men had known enough.

During the coming centuries many inventions will be made, but the principles upon which they are to be constructed are in existence right now, awaiting perception and application. And every improvement that will be made in every line of work, art, manufacture, commerce, agriculture, physics and metaphysics will merely be the discovery and unfoldment of facts that exist now.

In the years that are before us we shall all doubtless make significant progress. Each step will come as soon as we really think of it, as soon as we really see the next thing to do and do it. The opportunity to perceive the next step is always open—always waiting to be utilized.

This brings us to the self-evident truth that in your business today—at this very minute the silent little figures of cost exist —they are the ever-working, ever-necessary elements which must be controlled, else they will control both you and your business.

They are like the cells of your body—kept healthy they give strength to your business, but if diseased and unmanageable the resulting effect on your business may be disastrous.

So let us consider that your costs of doing

business must be known because they in a sense either absorb or fix your net profit.

But costs, even when known, must be comparable to be of the greatest value to us.

Your own comparative costs will be your first concern, because they will prove a very definite guide in controlling the operating expenses of each of your various departments. Then you will, of course, need to compare very carefully and watch very closely your cost margins, or rather the margin between your revenue or income and the cost of doing business. Figured still more closely you will be able to determine your margin of gross profit on each line of goods handled. This information will quite naturally prove a very satisfactory executive check on what should be the right margin of gross profit and how it may be maintained.

But we must go further in the matter of cost than to compile and study the figures relating to our own business, because competition exists and keen competition must be healthy and fair for the good of competitors and consumers.

Therefore, we should know something of our competitors' costs or rather the average cost of doing business within a given territory.

Such knowledge can best be obtained through a uniform cost system and the system already devised for your Association fills this need admirably.

President West, of the Georgia Lumber Association, a few months ago made this very pertinent statement regarding costs:

" 'Know your cost' is the secret of success. It is remarkable how dealers who are simply guessing day after day and month after month survive as long as they do. We are now entering upon a new era in the business world where profits will be small and overhead hard to control. Keener competition will demand that a dealer shall know his costs or find himself out of the running."

The uniform method of determining costs has always proved the correct way to stop leaks and losses. If we are to "knock the L out of our P. and L." and place our business figures always on the right side of the ledger, we must know not only our own costs but we must know how those costs compare with others in the same trade or industry. Such knowledge presented to your executives every month in the form of comparative statements will enable you to immediately place your finger on dozens of little leaks creeping

stealthily into your business, and best of all because you have such monthly control you are able to *stop the leaks in time.*

It is difficult to conceive why any business man should ignore such an important feature of his business. Perhaps no other one thing is as important as cost knowledge and control.

Then, too, a uniform cost system is the most satisfactory way to eliminate price cutting.

In all parts of the country one hears about the evils resulting from the price cutting that some business men are practicing. This is especially true in those communities where the general demand has shown a tendency to slump.

Dealers who have increased investments in their plants and capacity to serve the peak demand of former years are reluctant to readjust themselves to existing conditions. They endeavor to force the demand by cutting the price. They seem to feel that because they were once able to sell a hundred thousand dollars' worth of paper boxes they must continue to do so, regardless of the ever-changing demands of a community.

In their eagerness to get a large volume of business they forget some of the fundamen-

tals of marketing. They will argue and satisfy themselves with theoretical calculations based on the proposition that increased volume will mean quick turnover and will enable them to operate on a smaller margin of profit.

While these theories appear practical on paper, close observation proves conclusively that they do not work out in practice. The manufacturer who gets this big-volume, quick-turnover idea does not go into his calculations deep enough to fully comprehend what he actually has to accomplish in the way of increased volume to offset the loss he sustains by cutting the price. If cutting the price would create a new or an additional field for his product there might be some justification for his action, but unfortunately this is seldom, if ever, the case, and as a consequence it is not only an unprofitable procedure to him, but frequently is ruinous to the whole industry in his community. I wish to call your attention to some illustrations as to what happens when a price is cut.

A paper box manufacturer who knows his cost of operations realizes that he must make 25 per cent gross profit on the product that he sells; therefore he adds 33⅓ per cent to the delivered cost of material.

Sales price	$100.00
Cost of manufacturing	75.00
Gross profit	$25.00

This manufacturer is told that his price is high, and, even though he knows that such a margin is his "dead line" if he desires to earn a reasonable net profit, he yields to the temptation of volume and accepts the business on a 5 per cent cut price. That sale then has a

Reduced sales price of	$95.00
With cost of manufacturing remaining at	75.00

Leaving a gross profit of only $20.00

The cost of manufacturing remains the same, and the manufacturer's cost of doing business has not changed, but $5 of profit has been sacrificed and additional volume must be secured to offset this loss.

To regain the $5 gross profit lost on the original bill, 25 per cent additional business must be obtained, which, in this particular illustration, amounts to $23.75. How many paper box manufacturers realize when they cut a price 5 per cent that it is necessary to have a 25 per cent increase in volume to offset that cut?

Is it possible to obtain this 25 per cent in-

crease in a staple business without materially increasing the scope of operations and perhaps going into other territory? And if that be done it necessarily means increased expense.

Recently it was brought to our attention that a manufacturer in a northern city cut 15 per cent to sell a bill. We do not think this manufacturer understood that in order to offset the sacrifice he made he would have to obtain an increase in volume of 250 per cent. Most manufacturers will hesitate when they know the facts about making such a cut in prices.

If business men in any line of industry would adopt a uniform cost system and see that group installations are made, then call meetings and compare figures, price cutting would soon be eliminated, the whole industry would soon be on a sound basis and individual concerns using the system would be assured always of a fair and just return on their investment.

Some recent statistics are interesting:

In the printing trade where no good uniform costs are applied, 253 out of 808 concerns showed heavy losses during a prosperous year when losses should have been almost entirely eliminated.

Almost the same result came about in the paper trade, with 86 out of 244 suffering heavy losses.

In a similar test of 100 retail lumber yards where the uniform cost system had been installed all showed a profit ranging from 4 to 15 per cent on their investments.

We can offer no better proof of the value of costs in making your profits sure.

In fact it is not an exception, but the rule, that wherever manufacturers know their costs, they are able to make estimates which prove to be fair and just to the customer, and which yield to the manufacturer a fair and honest margin of profit.

As paper box manufacturers you owe it to yourselves, to your customers and to your competitors *to know your costs*—for it is really the only sure way to make your industry as a whole, progressive, prosperous and profitable.

ADDRESS AT THE OPENING OF THE KGO BROADCASTING STATION, OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA

By O. H. Fischer

President of the Chamber of Commerce, Oakland, California

(Speech delivered at the opening of the KGO Broadcasting station of the General Electric Company, Oakland, California.)

Friends of Radio Land:—Oakland feels happy tonight, not only because it is witnessing the dedication of one of the world's largest broadcasting stations, but also because it can send messages of friendship and good will to the thousands of radio enthusiasts throughout the western hemisphere, and, we hope, throughout the greater portion of the civilized world.

The Oakland Chamber of Commerce congratulates the General Electric Company on the completion of this monument to Radio. It is an expression of that kind of service to the public which has become the keynote of successful business in these later years. It is the application of the Golden Rule of business,—the only basis upon which business will permanently prosper or civilization continue to advance.

Oakland and the Eastbay cities fully appreciate the opportunity this station gives for telling the story of their growth and development. Here on a site reaching from the eastern shore line of San Francisco Bay to the foothills, a site unsurpassed by any of the world's cities, live over 400,000 people who enjoy an ideal climate affording all-year-round outdoor recreation, and who have every educational advantage.

Oakland is growing faster than the State, and the State is growing at three times the rate of the Nation. It is the second fastest growing large city in the United States. A new house is finished in Oakland every twenty minutes. A new industrial plant locates here every five days! It is a prosperous city; its bank clearings have increased 952 per cent in sixteen years,—over twice the rate of the entire Nation!

Around the shores of the Pacific live over two-thirds of all the people on the globe. The undeveloped markets of the Orient offer great commercial opportunities. Here in this western land will take place America's greatest development in the next generation.

"Out where the world is in the making
Where fewer hearts in despair are aching,
That's where the West begins;

Where there's more of singing and less of sighing,
Where there's more of giving and less of buying,
And a man makes friends without half trying—
That's where the West begins."

ASSIGNMENT

Prepare and deliver *one each* of the speeches that have been discussed in this lesson.

Part B

GESTURE AND PLATFORM MOVEMENT

In Lessons I and II a few general directions for platform bearing were given. In this lesson the subject will be further developed by a treatment of gesture and platform movement.

Gestures Before Large and Small Audiences

Gestures and general platform movement become more important as the size of the audience increases. Before a committee, or small body of hearers, unless the discussion becomes more than ordinarily animated, but little gesture and movement is necessary. On the other hand, in an auditorium seating several thousand hearers, a speech without some gesture or platform movement would seem extremely "wooden" and ineffective. Two reasons may be assigned for this fact. In the first place, in the case of the small audience, the hearers are close to the speaker and can see the least change in his face, and the

slightest movement of his hands or body, thus being able to make up their mind just how the speaker feels about what he is saying. In the case of the large audience, the hearers are so far away that a good deal of the speaker's facial expression is lost, as are a good many of the smaller movements of his hands and body. Consequently, if the speaker is to show the audience how he feels about what he is saying, he must "write large" his responses to his thoughts. This means that the fist must supplement the frown in anger, that some movement of the arms and hands must supplement the lowered chest in discouragement, and that, in general, some bodily response must be resorted to which the audience can plainly see. The second reason why more action is needed in the large auditorium is that the emotions of the speaker usually run higher before the "great throng" than before the committee. It is only when popular emotions run high that a really large crowd can be secured, and, if the popular emotions are running high, naturally the speaker himself will be more highly charged with emotion, and if he is not to act a falsehood in his speech, he must give vent to this emotion in action. Further, the very presence of the vast audience usually stimulates

a speaker, so that he naturally rises to higher planes of thought and emotion.

Gestures Often Present even Before Small Audiences

Let it not be inferred, however, from what has been said, that the speech before the committee or board of directors should be devoid of gesture and movement, or that at times, if the occasion demands it, the action should not be vigorous and emphatic. Circumstances must always govern the speaker's general reaction. On the whole, however, a speaker will feel the need for action much more before a large audience than before a small one.

Gestures Must Involve the Whole Body

A very important thing for every student of speaking to remember is that " the whole man is present in every speech." This means that we do not react "piecemeal" to a situation but that the whole human organism is present in every reaction. It will do little good (and may do harm) to practice assiduously some gesture of the hand, without bringing the whole body into harmony with it. Likewise to practice facial expression without attention to general posture and movements of the arms and hands would, in general, be

folly. Posture, movement, gesture, facial expression—all should be co-ordinated. What specific directions are given, therefore, in the following paragraphs should be followed by the student *with the utmost care that the whole body is always involved.* A general "checking up" before a mirror will aid in attaining sincerity and genuineness in every movement.

Perhaps the most simple form of gesture is pointing. This, of course, may be done in several ways, but what is known as the "in-

FIG. 1. The common index.

FIG. 2. The directing index.

dex hand" is probably most useful in this sort of gesture.

In the most common form of the index hand, the forefinger is extended, while the other fingers are curved in different degrees toward the palm, the thumb resting upon the

first joint of the middle finger. The palm is about vertical. (See Figure 1.) The forefinger should not be absolutely straight, but should rest in an easy curve.

Sometimes, if it is desired to emphasize the directing power of the index, the hand may be turned over until the palm is horizontal and the thumb down. (See Figure 2.)

The Index Hand

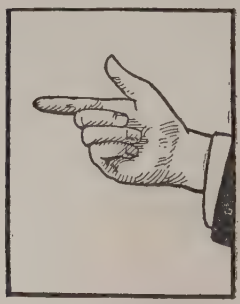

Fig. 3. The animated index.

When a person becomes very animated, the thumb rises, the degree of animation determining the amount that the thumb is raised.

But when we know how the index hand itself is formed, we have really only the least part of a pointing gesture.

In order to execute this gesture properly, the student should know the four parts of every gesture. These are:

First: The Preparation. The hand must be moved from the side of the body to the place where it is desired to use it. This should be done in nearly a straight line, that

is, the hand should not go in a roundabout way to get to its destination.

Second: The Sweep. After the hand has been raised in preparation, there comes a sweep of the arm to the final destination of the gesture.

Third: The Stroke. When the hand has reached its destination, there should be a sort of *stroke,* or *definite final impulse.* This should occur on the accented syllable of the emphatic word.

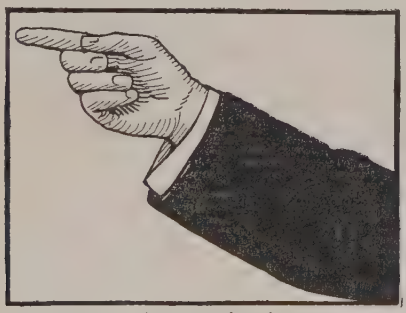

Fig. 4. The completed gesture.

Fourth: The Return. After the gesture is finished, the hand should return to the side. It is very easy in this part of the gesture to exercise too little or too much control over the hand. A good rule is to let it fall,—but keep a brake on it, that is, give it a retarded fall.

FIG. 5. The right and the wrong way of using the index hand. The small arc *ab* shows the correct path of the finger, in making the stroke of the gesture, the center being at the wrist. The large arc *AB* shows the path of the finger when the wrist is held rigid and the center of the movement is at the elbow. This latter method of using the index is to be avoided.

Caution No. 1: In the completed gesture, unless emphatic, avoid a straight arm. Let the arm be broken at the elbow, and also at the wrist. (See Figure 4.)

Caution No. 2: In making the stroke, do not turn the hand over, so the palm is horizontal and the thumb up.

Caution No. 3: Be sure to get the wrist loose. Some speakers use the hand and forearm as if it were one long, straight rod. Get free movement at the wrist. (See Figure 5.)

Caution No. 4: Don't poke or punch. Let the stroke be vertical, up and down, and not toward the audience or the thing pointed to.

Gestures made with the index hand are not confined to mere pointing, although all may be traced to this. They are also used in *counting, enumerating, designating; in caution, reproach, and warning.*

EXERCISE!

Practice the proper use of the index gesture

in the following sentences and paragraphs. Be sure to get the sentence in which you desire to use the gesture firmly in mind first; then rise, and, standing before a mirror, utter the sentence at the same time that you use the gesture.

Be sure to start the gesture early enough to avoid any hurry in its execution. Action is prompted by the rising of an idea in the mind of the speaker, hence a gesture begins with the beginning of the words which express that idea.

Yonder is the church spire.
There is the very picture he spoke of.
Whose hat is that?

Go down that street and turn to your right.
Away! Get you gone!

To prison with him! Not another word!
Sir! There is the door! Never venture into my house again!

Now, Ladies and Gentlemen, here is a point that I wish you to consider. First, Ladies and Gentlemen, it is unsatisfactory. Second, it is contrary to approved principles.

Is it not the same virtue which does everything for us here in England? Do you imagine that it is the Land Tax Act which raises your revenue? That it is the annual vote in the Committee of Supply which gives you your army? or that it is the Mutiny Bill which inspires it with bravery and discipline?

No! surely no! It is the love of the people; it is their attachment to their government, from the sense of the deep stake they have in such a glorious institution, which gives you your army and your navy, and infuses into both that liberal obedience, without which your army would be a base rabble, and your navy nothing but rotten timber.—*Edmund Burke.*

Why do we longer delay? Why do we still deliberate? Let us complete the enterprise already so well commenced; and since our union with England can no longer consist with that liberty and peace which are our chief delight, let us dissolve these fatal ties and conquer forever that good which we already enjoy—an entire and absolute independence.—*Richard Henry Lee.*

TWO MORE EXERCISES!

No. 1. With the right hand in the first form of the index, point one after the other to the floor, the window, and the ceiling. Do this first far to the right, and then nearly in front of you. Do the same with the left hand. When you use your right hand, stand with your right foot forward; when you use your left, stand with your left foot forward. As you point, say the words, "The floor, the window, the ceiling." Be sure to strike on *floor, win-, ceil-.*

No. 2. Pointing to the wall in front of you near the ceiling, with your right hand, first far to the left, then in the middle, say,

"That corner, the middle." Repeat with the left hand, starting at the left. Change your position when you change hands. Strike on *that,* and *mid-*.

The Open Hand with the Palm Down

Fig. 6. A gesture with the palm of the hand down.

Oftentimes there is occasion to use a pointing gesture somewhat more indefinite than the index hand would make it. To supply this need, the open hand with the palm down may be used. (See Figure 6.) If a stroke were made downward with this hand, it might remind one of a paintbrush, with the fingers and thumb representing the flexible part of the brush.

Caution No. 1: When the gesture is finished, that is, after the stroke has been made, the hand should extend straight out from the forearm or be elevated at a slight angle. It should not droop or pitch downward.

This gesture is used to *locate, trace, measure, shape, mold,* etc. From these uses it has been extended in one direction to *caressing, blessing,* and *protection,* and in another to *reproof, suppression,* and *restraint.*

In the last case, the hand takes a slight angle with the forearm, and the stroke should be stopped a little before the hand reaches the level of the forearm.

EXERCISE!

Practice the proper use of the open hand with palm down in the following sentences:

Yonder clump of trees.
That strip of woods that borders the field.
From this house over to that one.
I will heap up this sand into a little mound.

Blessings on thee, little man,
Barefoot boy with cheeks of tan!

Pause, I entreat you; consider for a moment what reasons you can give to your fellow sufferers in this calamity that it will bring upon us.

The Open Hand with Palm Up

Fig. 7. The proper form of a gesture with the palm of the hand up.

Just opposite to the open hand with palm down, and in many cases, opposite to it in meaning, is the open hand with palm up. This hand is formed by turning the hand so that the palm is up, and allowing the forefinger to drop below the middle finger, at the

same time letting the whole hand droop slightly from the wrist. (See Figure 7.)

Caution No. 1: Be sure to get the fingers fully unrolled. Do not have them bent in toward the palm. Avoid, however, the extreme of having the hand flat. (See Figure 8.)

Caution No. 2: Do not get a "cup" hand; that is, do not get too deep a palm. (See Figure 9.)

FIG. 8. Fingers not unrolled.

FIG. 9. The "cup" hand.

Caution No. 3: Do not let the thumb fall in toward the palm. Keep it out to the side.

Caution No. 4: Do not plaster the fingers, nor yet spread them. (See Figures 10 and 11.)

Caution No. 5: Do not forget the stroke. Every gesture must have a stroke. Let there be a slight unrolling of the fingers as the stroke is made.

Caution No. 6: When one gesture follows close upon another, it is not necessary to recover the hand fully each time. It may just be given little succeeding strokes on the following emphatic words by an impulse from the elbow.

Caution No. 7: The palm should neither be horizontal nor vertical, but about halfway between,—at an angle of about 45°.

FIG. 10. Fingers plastered together.

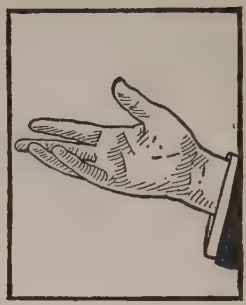

FIG. 11. Fingers spread.

Caution No. 8: Do not allow the gesture to pull you forward, as shown in Figure 12. Keep erect, and remember to keep a bend at the elbow and also at the wrist.

This gesture is used in *asking, giving, receiving, welcoming, asserting, revealing, explaining;* also in *humility, concession,* and the like.

EXERCISE!

Practice the proper use of the open hand with palm up in the following sentences:

Give it to me.
Take it.

Let me ask, then, what is the chief business of war? It is to destroy human life; to mangle the limbs; to gnash and hew the body; to plunge the sword into the heart of a fellow creature; to strew the earth with bleeding frames, and to trample them under foot with horses' hoofs.

FIG. 12. "Reaching" for a gesture with the palm up—a common fault.

THREE MORE EXERCISES!

No. 1. Give the hand, palm up, with the right hand toward the floor, the window, and the ceiling, first far to the right and then nearly in front of you. Stand with the right foot forward for this. Say the words, "The floor, the window, and the ceiling," as you make the gestures.

No. 2. Give the hand, palm up, with the

left hand toward the floor, the window, and the ceiling, first far to the left and then nearly in front of you. Stand with the left foot forward for this. Say the words as in the previous exercise.

No. 3. Try the hand, palm up and palm down, in all sorts of positions and directions. Say the words that arise in your mind when you make some of these gestures.

The Clenched Hand

Everyone has noticed that when people become very angry, and wish to make things very emphatic, they shake their fists at one another. This fact gives rise to one of the most powerful gestures that an orator can use,—that is, the *clenched hand.*

Fig. 13. The correct form of the clenched hand.

The *clenched hand* is formed by folding all the fingers into the palm of the hand, and firmly locking them there by passing the thumb over the knuckles,—generally over the second joint, or knuckle, of the middle finger. (See Figure 13.)

Caution No. 1: Do not double the thumb under.

Caution No. 2: Do not allow the thumb to be out at the side of the hand.

The *clenched hand* is used in *hate, anger, revenge, defiance,* and in many cases where it is desired that something shall be *especially emphatic.* It is a very strong gesture, and should not be used often.

Caution: In the use of the Clenched Hand, do not forget the stroke. In many cases, the spring at the wrist will develop into a slight rebound, but do not neglect the stroke.

Caution: Do not strike sidewise across the body, but strike straight out toward the audience.

EXERCISE!

Practice the proper use of the Clenched Hand in the following sentences:

I defy you!

You are a coward!

My lords, you cannot conquer America.

If I were an American, as I am an Englishman, I never would lay down my arms—never,—never, —never!

SIX EXERCISES FOR THE GESTURE WITH THE CLENCHED HAND

NOTE: In these exercises extend the forward foot its whole length or more, allowing the weight to drift forward as the gesture is made. Do not throw the hips back to keep your balance. Support the weight on the forward foot. When making gestures to the left, have the left foot forward.

No. 1. Give the Clenched Hand with the right hand toward the floor obliquely in front of you to the right; toward the wall; toward the ceiling. Repeat three times.

No. 2. Repeat the previous exercise, putting the gesture in front of you.

No. 3. Execute the two previous exercises with the left hand to the left and in front of you.

No. 4. Execute gestures with both hands clenched toward the floor obliquely to the right in front, toward the wall, and toward the ceiling. Do the same directly in front; also to the left. Don't forget to change feet when you make the gestures to the left.

No. 5. Try gestures with each hand, and with both, to the following counts, striking on the black figures:

1, 2, 3, 4,	5, 6, 7, 8,	9, 10, 11, 12,	13, 14, 15, 16
1, 2, 3,	4, 5, 6,	7, 8, 9,	10, 11, 12
1, 2,	3, 4,	5, 6,	7, 8
1, 2, 3, 4,	1, 2, 3,	1, 2,	1, 2, 3, 4

Be vigorous in your counting, as if you were angry.

No. 6. Try the Clenched Hand, with one and both hands, in all sorts of positions and directions. Say aloud the words that come to your mind when you make some of these gestures.

Planes of Gestures

In watching a skilful orator, one notices that on certain sentiments his gestures seek a high plane, while on certain others they seek a low plane. When should a gesture be made

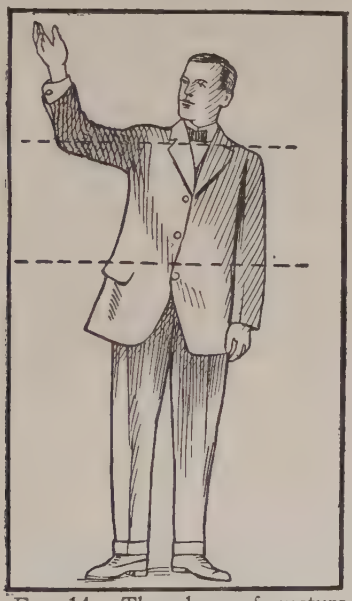

Fig. 14. The plane of gesture.

upward, and when downward? This is governed by definite laws, which are given below.

All the different gestures, ranging from that of the hand pointing straight upward to that of the hand pointing straight downward,

may be divided into three zones or planes: The *upper zone* or *plane,* the *middle zone* or *plane* and the *lower zone* or *plane.* Each of these planes occupies about one third the distance covered, the middle zone, perhaps, being a little narrower than the other two.

The Upper Zone

The *upper zone* is used to denote things that are *joyous, hopeful, triumphant, patriotic, poetical, spiritual,* etc.

EXERCISE:

Practice appropriate gestures in the upper plane for the following sentences:

God bless our country's flag!
This is the spirit that should lead us forward.
These are the ideals which we should follow.
I shall never give up these high hopes.

The Middle Zone

The *middle zone* is used for *narration, description, address, welcome, command, conciliation,* etc. It is the zone most generally used for all the relations that a man bears to his fellowmen.

EXERCISE:

Practice appropriate gestures in the middle plane for the following sentences:

I lay these facts before you.

I wish you all to keep quiet now.

These are the three points I wish to leave with you.

I tell you I shall never give up.

Within our own territory, stretching through many degrees of latitude and longitude, we have the choice of many products and many means of independence.

The Lower Zone

The *lower zone* or *plane* is used for things *emphatic, forceful, determined;* also for *gloom, doubt, hate, revenge, murder,* etc.

EXERCISE:

Execute proper gestures in the lower plane for the following sentences:

And then he went down into oblivion.

I repel the base insinuation!

I stand helpless before this tribunal.

I confess I do not know what the next year will bring.

I say we shall put these obstacles under our feet!

"Prevail in the cause that is dearer than life
Or be crushed in its ruin to die."

Gestures for Different Purposes

Gestures have been variously classified according to their purposes. Some are locative, that is, they are used to locate things. Others are descriptive. Some are suggestive, that

is, they suggest ideas. Still others are emphatic, that is, they are used to give greater force to the ideas which they accompany.

Locative Gestures

Locative gestures are found in such expressions as "Yonder is the tree," "He ran from there to there," "The man only stood so high," "The road runs along the top of that ridge yonder." In these gestures the speaker's eyes ordinarily first flit to the scene that is being pointed out, and then immediately come back to the audience. In case a scene is being painted in an extremely vivid manner, the speaker's eyes often stay with the imagined scene for some time.

Descriptive Gestures

Descriptive gestures are just what the name implies—they are gestures which aid words in describing anything. When we say, "The smoke rolled up and up toward the sky," we very likely use a rolling motion of the hand to show how the smoke rolled. If a speaker should say, "As I stood there and watched that great volume of water tumbling over the precipice, I was filled with wonder," he would very properly use a descriptive gesture to show how the water tumbled.

Suggestive Gestures

Descriptive gestures often are quite closely confined in scope, that is, they do not move through great distances. For instance, in the last example, if the speaker were a preacher behind a pulpit, he might simply move the hand from the wrist. In such cases descriptive gestures become suggestive, merely starting the imagination of the hearers in the right direction. Gesture is used suggestively also to show the speaker's moods.

For instance, if a speaker should say: "As for these objections we hear, let them go," he might very well shrug his shoulders, or use the open hand with the palm up in a gesture of tossing them aside. Sometimes such gestures are called "manifestive" gestures, for they manifest the feelings of the speaker. A frown, for example, used in the sentence, "I can't understand this attitude of the opposition," would manifest the speaker's uncertainty or struggle.

Emphatic Gestures

Emphatic gestures are among the most common gestures that speakers use. When a speaker says: "These are the cold, hard facts, and you cannot get away from them,"

and supplements his words by the use of his fist, he is using emphatic gesture. When he says, "I shall always keep my mind open" and emphasizes his words by a gesture of both hands with palms up, he is likewise using emphatic gesture. Emphatic gestures are almost always necessary for spirited or earnest speaking. The thought and emotion takes hold of the whole body, and words seem inadequate to express the meaning of the whole man.

Literal Action for Figurative Language

There used to be a rule for speakers which said, "Never use literal action for figurative language," and under this rule inexperienced speakers were adjured not to point to their own bosoms on such a phrase as "The great heart of South Carolina," and not to go through the motions of climbing a ladder on such a phrase as "Climbing up the ladder of fame." The concrete instances cited were good, but the general rule is probably wrong. Professor Winans, of Dartmouth College, has the following to say on this point.[1]

[1] *Public Speaking,* by J. A. Winans, p. 488; published by The Century Company, New York.

"When it is said that we should never use 'those gestures which indicate a literal carrying out of the figurative language,' this might be understood as denying our most primitive use of gesture, and as forbidding one to make a wry face when one speaks of a 'bitter pill,' or as a criticism on the Crow Indian who told me the sermon we had listened to was a 'high-up talk,' with hand held above his head. Perhaps it is sufficient to say, keep always in mind the fact that a figurative statement is figurative. Also be careful of faded metaphors. A speaker once extended his arm when he mentioned 'the arm of a crane.' I saw a debater, describing what he considered the repeated encroachments of England upon the Transvaal, move down the platform one step for each encroachment."

Grace in Gesture

Grace in gesture was probably more sought after in former years than at present, but it still is effective. We would no longer tolerate the broad, sweeping, unnecessary curves indulged in by the old-time elocutionist, but even today there is a charm about graceful gestures that is not present in jerky, abrupt, and angular gestures. The curved line is probably more satisfying to the eye on ordinary occasions than the straight line, but it should not be deliberately sought after. It comes into gestures as a result of poise and co-ordination, and disappears in gestures when a speaker has gone beyond poise, as in

heated discussion, and has become explosive and unreserved. It is probably possible to say that curves disappear in gesture in the proportion that earnestness appears.

Reserve in Gesture

It almost "goes without saying" that there should be reserve in gesture. A speaker who uses up his whole repertory of gesture in the milder parts of his speech, has nothing left to fall back upon when he really becomes in earnest. Gestures are supports for words, and as long as the words can carry the full meaning of the speaker, there is no need to resort to them. When the speaker feels, however, that he must supplement his words in order to convey his whole meaning and how he feels about what he says, he should not hesitate to use gesture, and to use it freely.

Final Advice in Regard to Gesture

A speaker probably never reaches his full powers until he is free in gesture. His voice and his rhetoric will both be better when he is free in his action. To become free, it is necessary to practice much before a mirror and, if possible, to seek the advice of a friendly critic.

Farewell Word

AND NOW, GOOD-BY!

You have been put in possession of many things that will help you in your speaking. Do not fail to put them into practice.

Speak whenever you can secure the opportunity.

Do not stop your study of public speaking with this course. Secure other books on public speaking. Study them intently.

Listen carefully to all the speeches you hear. Strive to discover the speaker's art. Seek out his sources of power.

Read collections of speeches. Outline any speeches that seem especially good.

Read current speeches. Test them by all you know about speech-making.

Do not be afraid of work. If necessary, spend a week on a speech that you can give in half an hour.

Persevere! Then, you will finally see your efforts crowned with *Success!*